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Edited by

ROBERT L. KELLY

Executive Secretary of the Association

MARTHA T. BOARDMAN

Editorial Assistant

ARCHIE M. PALMER

Contributing Editor

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EDITORIAL

CINCINNATI, 1932

THE Eighteenth Annual Meeting of the Association is to occur at Cincinnati on January 21 and 22, 1932. The readers of the BULLETIN are asked to record the dates in their calendars. The Starrett's Netherland Plaza Hotel has been selected as the headquarters for the meeting. The Executive Committee of the Association was in session in the office of the executive secretary on April 18 and outlined the plans for the Cincinnati meeting.

With the beginning of the new academic year in the fall more definite announcements will come regarding the plans for the meeting itself, the hotel accommodations, the railroad rates, etc.

The Executive Committee and the headquarters office now have in hand an unusually large number of important projects. It is expected that these will largely come to a consummation or at least be reported upon at the Cincinnati meeting.

THE COMPREHENSIVE EXAMINATION STUDY

It will be of interest to the members and friends of the Association to know that the General Education Board has made an appropriation of \$25,000 in behalf of the Comprehensive Examination Study. Dr. Edward S. Jones, Director of Personnel Research of the University of Buffalo has been selected as Director.

SOME OBSERVATIONS ON COLLEGE PLANS

The meeting of the American Association of University Women at Boston in April was a most gratifying expression of intelligent enthusiasm for the cause of many phases of American education.

The BULLETIN publishes in this issue the paper read by Dean C. S. Boucher of the University of Chicago, who has been serving as chairman of a joint committee charged with the responsibility of reporting and evaluating new plans in the American college. Dr. McHale, the executive secretary of the American Association of University Women, had previously collected reports on the newer plans of many of the colleges, and Dean

Boucher's paper undertook to present the whole situation in a comprehensive but condensed way. The paper is presented now with the permission of the American Association of University Women as registering the state of progress which has been attained at this juncture, in the colleges which cooperated with the committee by sending in their reports.

It is not infrequently the case that colleges refer to their plans as "experiments" and to their methods as those of "experimentation." In a *bona fide* experiment the elements are known, counted and controlled, they may be isolated for continuous study, the processes are watched, and the results are measured with as great precision as possible. It could scarcely be claimed that any of the reports considered by the committee of which Dean Boucher is chairman approximate very closely to these conditions of a "controlled experiment." What the colleges are doing for the most part is making changes and formulating plans. They should not loosely use the term "experiment" any more than the term "scientific." Scientific terms do not yield readily to philosophical exposition.

It is worth noting that the work of this committee has dealt thus far with techniques principally. The vitality of a college cannot be measured altogether, of course, in terms of its administrative machinery. One may readily recall the experience of the man who took a watch to pieces and then put the pieces together again and discovered that he had several pieces left over. Of course, incidentally, the watch would not run. Or, to borrow the famous illustration of President Lowell, one could scarcely get full satisfaction out of mince pie by describing the several ingredients that are mixed up to make it.

More positively, the statement may be made with assurance that the vitality of a college is measured, if measured at all, in terms of the personnel of the faculty and students. It is the men and women and the boys and girls who count. A perfect plan cannot be run by a stupid personnel. While it is highly desirable to secure the best possible plan, it is nevertheless true that a highly intelligent personnel can, if necessary, overcome most of the impediments in a stupid plan. Persons, not plans, educate persons, and the primary person whom each of us educates is himself.

It is well also to make the observation that not all the really

life giving and constructive procedure in American colleges has been exploited in the headlines. Some of the most significant forces in the world work silently and unobtrusively. There are some colleges with plans, some phases of which are very old, that are producing satisfying results because the breath of life has been breathed into them. This is not to say that on the whole the colleges may not be better because of the present era of rather excessive self-consciousness.

We all owe an obligation to the American Association of University Women.

* * * * *

CHINESE STUDENTS

Our friend Y. E. Hsiao, General Secretary of The Chinese Students' Christian Association in North America, has recently advised that there are 1,336 Chinese students in this country; 190 are girls. He says:

They are scattered over thirty-nine states in 191 colleges. The trend is toward graduate rather than undergraduate studies. The smaller colleges have more undergraduates, while the larger universities in cities have more graduate students. We encourage those from China to finish their college work before coming here.

New York has the largest number, 246, California 224 and Illinois 155. By colleges, Columbia has 116 students, University of Michigan 94, and the University of California 87. In women students, the University of Michigan leads with 23, Columbia 18, University of California 14, University of Southern California 8, and Wellesley 5.

The latest returns from registrars of American universities showed a decided decrease in number from that of five years ago. There are a number of reasons: First, the Tsing Hua College has ceased to send from 80 to 120 students every year and the last batch was sent in the summer of 1929; second, the lower living expenses in Europe in comparison to America; third, the lack of opportunity in this country to cap their theoretical training with practical experience; fourth, the depression of Chinese dollars (1 American dollar equivalent to 4 Chinese dollars). Some students sent by the Provincial authorities get into trouble due to their finances.

We are writing to you to let you know the present situation of our students in this country and the problems they are facing here and hope that some ways and means can be developed so that these guest students will carry back America's good will when they return to their home country.

Mr. Hsiao reports that already some of the colleges holding membership in this Association are offering the liberal scholarship which he proposes.

GAINS AND LOSSES IN COLLEGE INVESTMENTS

The Association office is making a study, through the medium of the Commission on Permanent and Trust Funds, of the distribution of the investments of member colleges and the recent fluctuations in income of these securities. Several colleges have reported heavy losses on investments the past year; others report no such loss whatsoever. The time is opportune for a careful study of the practices of colleges in this field of administration. Cooperation in furnishing the data requested by the Commission promptly and fully will facilitate the compilation of the report and be of great assistance to the office.—*R. L. K.*

EVADING, OR AVOIDING, TAXATION

There is a great difference between evading a tax and avoiding a tax.

An illustration makes it plain. Between Richard Roe's house and the city are two roads. One is a toll-road, with a toll-house and a tax. The other is a free road, without a toll-house and without a tax. If Richard Roe goes to town by the free road, he avoids the tax; he does not evade it. But, if he goes by the toll-road and sneaks around the toll-house, or rushes through the toll-gate, he evades the tax. The former proceeding is honest, the latter is dishonest.

We all avoid taxes, whenever we can. We frequently decide whether to buy or to rent a piece of property, with reference to the burden of taxes, endeavoring to avoid as much as possible; and goods are selected, whether home-made, or imported, often in view of the impost duties involved.

Government is making it hard to avoid taxes. On March 3, 1931, the last day of Congress, a bill was passed both by the House and the Senate, and was signed by the President, thus becoming law, which makes it impossible for a man now to set up a trust, from which he receives the income during life, which will be tax-free at the time of his death. Hitherto, if the trust was irrevocable, it was not taxed, the interpretation then being

that title to the property passed from the man, when it was separated from his estate irrevocably; but the law now makes it clear, that for taxation purposes property is in the man's estate, belonging to him, so long as he receives its income.

This new legislation will doubtless make it difficult for colleges and other charitable organizations to receive annuity funds, under annuity agreements, without becoming liable to a tax upon at least a part of the sum.

Already the Federal Government and some of the states make a partition of any sum which buys an annuity, regarding one portion of the sum as paid for an annual return, which is determined by what are called "actuarial calculations" (based upon the expectation of life and the earnings of the money paid), and the other part as a gift. Only that part, which is reckoned as the gift, is free from tax.—A. W. A.

COLLEGE ARCHITECTURE

On another page there appears an announcement of a forthcoming reference number of *The Architectural Forum*, devoted to the architecture of college and university buildings. The Klauder and Wise book, *College Architecture in America*, published in the name of this Association under a subvention from the Carnegie Corporation, is a veritable encyclopedia of information and guidance on this subject and may be ordered directly from the Association office. The Association's Commission on College Architecture is now gathering data on recently constructed college buildings which it is planned to assemble in booklet form and publish in the fall as a supplement to *College Architecture in America*.—A. M. P.

CURRENT CHANGES AND EXPERIMENTS IN LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES*

C. S. BOUCHER

DEAN OF THE COLLEGES OF ARTS, LITERATURE AND SCIENCE
THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

“WHAT’S all the shootin’ for?” may well be the query of one who left college no more than ten years ago and has read only a few of the hundreds of articles and the dozens of books published during the last two years on numerous phases of higher education. If this current literature were critical merely in the destructive sense, limited to denunciation of past and current practices, it would be significant only in its amount as an augury of improvement. This current literature, however, is much more significant than the carping of a few congenital critics, of whom each generation has its share, because we have long since passed through the initial stage of destructive criticism and are well advanced in a period of change resulting from constructive criticism.

Students, faculty members, and administrative officers of our better colleges are at present more constructively critical of the shortcomings of undergraduate education than at any previous time in our history. The time and efforts of many persons are being devoted to a penetrating study of curricula, methods of instruction, and administrative and personnel problems of considerable variety through such agencies as national and local conferences, commissions, committees, the questionnaire, and specially-appointed visiting agents. Change in performance merely for the sake of doing something different is foolish and dangerous—“quack-doctoring,” indeed; but change based upon a careful study of past performance in the light of tested thought and more clearly defined objectives is inspiring because charged with possibilities for progress.

Some of the new departures in liberal arts education have literally swept across the country and have been adopted in an ever

* An address before the American Association of University Women, Boston, Mass., April 9, 1931. Printed concurrently in the *Journal of the American Association of University Women*, June, 1931.

increasing number of institutions to the extent that they are now regarded quite generally as an essential part of the program of an up-to-date, not to say progressive, institution. Even more significant is the fact that thoughtful experimentation has become so much the order of the day that an institution is regarded as being in a stage worse than innocuous desuetude if it is not endeavoring to contribute its share to the improvement of the educational process.

Every college administrator and faculty member aware of his responsibilities is keenly desirous to profit by a knowledge of the most promising possibilities for the improvement of performance in his institution. In the interest of economy of time, effort, and money, there is great need that each institution be able to know, and thus profit by, the experiences of all other institutions.

Something over a year ago the American Association of University Women, under the vigorous and thoughtful leadership of its Executive, and Educational Secretary, Dr. Kathryn McHale, launched a most promising program of stock-taking and pooling of experiences among all the institutions of higher education throughout the country engaged in liberal arts education. Under the guidance of a national advisory committee nine regional chairmen and committees were appointed to canvass the current situation in the institutions of their respective areas.

As an example of the method of approach I wish to quote a few sentences from the communication sent to institutions whose cooperation was solicited by the chairman of the Northeast Central Section (who happens to be the present writer).

Please understand that no attempt will be made either to "rate" or to "standardize" institutions. Each institution will be mentioned only in connection with the current experiments, innovations or changes which it may deem worthy to report.

In asking for these reports we are not submitting a questionnaire, because a questionnaire would not give us what is desired. We are submitting a suggestive (not an all-inclusive) list of topics merely to show the wide variety of topics on which we are anxious to receive reports of current changes and experiments in liberal arts education. We are not asking for a complete description of the present status in your institution on all of these topics. You may report

on one, two, a dozen, or more topics—but only on current changes or experiments made in an effort to improve liberal arts education.

In the case of each experiment or innovation reported we desire statements as complete as may be necessary for the sake of clarity, regarding: (1) the reasons for, and educational objectives of, the new departure; (2) an account of the distinctive and unique features of the new departure, with as much detail as is necessary for clear understanding; (3) an estimate of results, either expected or actually attained, whether such judgments are tentative or conclusive.

In some instances you may have printed or mimeographed leaflets, pamphlets, bulletins, or reprints of articles, which will serve our purpose admirably; perhaps in most instances it may be necessary for an individual intimately identified with the new departure to write a special report. This will take time and effort, but not nearly as much as will be required of those who will digest and summarize these numerous reports for publication; and yet you will be able to share equally with all others in the benefits of this co-operative enterprise.

Then followed a page of suggested topics grouped under three main heads: (1) care and direction of students, (2) curriculum and instruction, (3) organization and administration.

The responses, both in the number of institutions represented and in the amount of material submitted, have been gratifying and astounding. The stupendous task which has fallen upon Dr. McHale, who has read, classified, digested, and made available in meaningful form, the great mass of reports from all sections of the country, can be appreciated only by one who has seen the amount and has inspected samples of the material handled. Merely to enumerate all the current changes and experiments reported would require more than a reasonable allotment of time for this paper. I shall endeavor merely to set forth some of the more significant changes which have been most widely instituted, and some of the experiments which seem to give promise of widespread adoption in the near future, together with some attempts at evaluation.

Selective Admission.—If you think that more colleges should adopt a rigorously selective plan of admission, because too many persons are going to college, you should know that the following appeared in a Boston newspaper in June, 1804: "The facility

with which the honors of college are obtained induces many to pass through the forms of what is falsely denominated a liberal education, merely for the name, and obtaining the name, their views are accomplished. Education thus becomes, in every sense of the word, too cheap. . . . We must give up the idea of bringing our highest degrees of instruction within the reach of every one, or we must give up the chances of being favored with men of complete erudition. What is lost by bestowing useless and imperfect knowledge on many, might well be employed in perfecting the education of a few." However, there were signs of improvement, for the writer noted that "the officers of several colleges are aiding the tendency to reformation, by exacting higher qualifications on admission than have of late been required."

No doubt we shall always have two points of view vociferously present: (1) that every boy and every girl who graduates from high school should be not merely permitted but encouraged to go to college; (2) that it is the duty of a college to insist that certain questions regarding the fitness of the applicant for admission be answered satisfactorily, in fairness to the student, to the college community, and to the donors of the funds entrusted to the college for educational purposes.

During the last few years more and more colleges have set minimum standards of achievement for entrance until we now have the greatest variety of requirements running all the way from specific subject matter and high quality requirements to merely a high school diploma. This situation has changed the question asked among preparatory school students from "Where are you going to college?" to "What college are you going to be able to enter?" The competition of a few years ago among colleges for students has changed to a competition among students for admission to college. Those institutions in a position to do so are selecting their students more carefully than ever before, and those students in a position to do so, by virtue of their qualifications, are selecting their colleges more intelligently than ever before.

Though it must be admitted that there is no established correlation between the quality of educational offerings in colleges and their entrance requirements, the colleges of the country have

arranged themselves quite definitely relative to each other on the score of entrance requirements with the result that those high-school students who graduate at the top of their class have the widest choice of colleges, and those at the bottom have the smallest choice. Many secondary school teachers have reported that the development of this situation has had a wholesome effect upon the attitude of both students and their parents toward the importance of preparatory school work. It seems to be clear that institutions with highly selective requirements will get the type of students they desire for the type of program they offer and will have a homogeneous student body, while institutions which, because of state law or financial pressure, are forced to take any and all applicants will have a most heterogeneous student body, including many who are anything but satisfactory and promising students.

Educational Guidance and Personnel Work.—During the early history of our colleges, indeed down to a time within the memory of living men, there was no problem of educational guidance, because the curriculum was fixed. There was no choice of meat offerings or dessert offerings; each student was fed the same intellectual menu as every other student who entered at the same time. Came a time when research work broadened the limits of old fields of knowledge and opened up entirely new fields. In order that the curriculum should reflect the widened boundaries of knowledge new courses were introduced as electives, at first sparingly, and then wholesale. As is typical of us in so many phases of life, we went from one extreme to another—from the rigidly fixed curriculum to the almost completely elective curriculum. A few years ago college students faced a formidably large catalogue with literally hundreds of course offerings, not clearly described and not properly related, with the elective system in vogue and no faculty member and no administrative officer available to help them solve the Chinese puzzle of course elections. Throughout his four years a student with no definite professional aim, finding no one on the college staff to guide him, more often than not would drift from one subject to another, depending upon chance, caprice, or student gossip for his guidance, and would come out at the end of four years with an academic record sheet worthy of a place in an educa-

tional museum. And yet, a student with a constitution strong enough to withstand such a stuffing of utterly indigestible educational hash, would come out triumphantly with a diploma and a degree (though frequently without anything worthy of being called an education), provided only that he had accumulated a certain number of course credits.

It is no wonder that in this period our college students developed for themselves as never before outlets for their best thought and efforts, "Student Activities"—athletics, publications, dramatics, and a vast number of purely social activities—something interesting and more worth while than the meaningless and deadly academic mummery. It is no wonder that in this period a distinguished educator complained that the "side-shows" were overshadowing the "main tent" in attention and importance; and an American university was said to be "a great athletic association and social club in which provision is made, merely incidentally, for intellectual activity on the part of the physically and socially unfit."

After seeing from experience the folly of both extremes—the rigidly fixed curriculum and the wide open elective system—the better colleges have endeavored to strike a happy medium by specifying degree requirements in general but meaningful terms, and by providing an educational guidance service. Regarding the former, the best practice now includes distribution or group requirements—English, foreign language, mathematics, natural science, and social science—designed to furnish a proper balance in an introduction to general education by the end of the second year, and a sequence or concentration requirement for the last two years, so that a student may be sure to get deep enough into at least one branch of knowledge to master its technique and method of thought—so that he may think and express himself as an educated person in at least one field of thought.

Though many crimes were committed in the early experiments in guidance and personnel work there are now many elaborate and successful plans in operation. At the present time it is impossible to describe one plan as more of an innovation or more successful than another. There are, however, a few general observations which seem to be warranted.

The educational guidance service provides, when functioning properly, a sufficient number of faculty members (whether called deans, advisors, or counselors) carefully selected because of appropriate qualifications, to give a reasonable amount of time to each student individually, to plan *with* each student, as well as *for* him, an educational program which seems to offer for him most possibilities for pleasure and profit in its pursuit. These persons with students assigned to them on the basis of scholastic interests, play the rôles of guides, counselors, and friends, and are doing our most effective personnel work of great variety incidental to and as a natural part of their educational guidance work.

Recently we have heard much blare of trumpets about a fifth wheel to the college cart—an independent personnel department, whose staff members are not faculty members and are responsible only to the president's office. A college which has set up such an agency has done so apparently on the assumption that because faculty members have so long neglected their duty regarding educational guidance and all related personnel problems they cannot or will not study and meet this personnel service obligation of the institution to its students. If this is so, then indeed there is no hope in us. However, in a number of institutions where the matter has been put before the faculty in an intelligent manner it has not been difficult to recruit a sufficient number of faculty members to afford adequate guidance by men and women who derive great personal satisfaction from the service and soon acquire new points of view which make them all the more valuable as members of the staff of instruction. The faculty members not personally in this service soon come to look to those members in the service for opinions and recommendations of great value in faculty meetings when matters of academic legislation are considered. I have attended national and local conferences of personnel workers of both types—faculty members and independent, full-time personnel workers. At the end of each conference I felt that I had never before been exposed to such an incongruous mixture of nonsense and sound sense; and most of the nonsense came from the non-faculty workers. It is no wonder that these independent personnel depart-

ments, in most institutions where they exist, are looked upon with suspicion and distrust by the faculty members.

Freshman Week is another recent innovation attracting attention. It was quite natural that, in the early stages of this experiment, there should appear some features of questionable value. At present the better colleges center their Freshman Week programs around two objectives: educational guidance and orientation into college life.

At first it was too frequently quite naïvely believed that the problems of educational guidance and orientation into college life could be solved in the few days of Freshman Week. Where results were critically studied it was soon discovered that educational guidance could not be offered intelligently without psychological or scholastic aptitude tests and subject matter placement or achievement tests. These were introduced into the Freshman Week program, and then it was seen that placement and achievement tests were needed at many subsequent points as a part of a continuous guidance service; students should be educated in the importance of "stock-taking" procedures at any and all times in order that they may be placed to their own best advantage in each educational pursuit, where real achievement and the maximum of sound progress are considerations of most importance. So, orientation into college life and adequate guidance have been found to be problems that continue long after Freshman Week and must be given attention throughout the student's college career.

Some institutions have been shrewd enough to see that many of these problems should be given attention before the student comes to college, while he is still in high school. Some colleges have launched highly rational programs of testing of high school students and pre-college counseling which are producing results so beneficial to all concerned that the wider adoption of such programs seems certain in the near future.

Though a student health service was provided in many institutions long before a guidance and personnel service, the development of the newer types of personnel work has frequently caused the health service to be improved, expanded, and better integrated into the more closely knit institutional program as it affects the total life of the student. The most spectacular expan-

sion of health service has come with the inclusion of mental health along with physical health and the addition of psychiatrists to health staffs. Though psychiatry seems to be in its infancy as a science, and though many indiscretions (not to use a stronger word) have been committed in its name, psychiatry is being given most favorable opportunities in many institutions to demonstrate the values which it may have, and which most of us hope it has, to contribute as an essential part of the guidance and personnel work.

Vocational guidance is being given an increasingly important place in personnel and educational guidance programs. The demand for vocational guidance experts for college positions as interviewers, lecturers, and instructors is greater than the supply of adequately qualified persons to fill them. This situation is a reflection of the fact that the science of vocational counseling is but in its infancy and there is the greatest need for more significant research work in this most fundamental educational field. The colleges are ready to use effectively the sound fruit of such investigation as rapidly as it is forthcoming.

Along with educational, vocational, and health guidance, some institutions have made provision for religious guidance, for social guidance, and for employment guidance for the self-supporting student. Though there are many practices among institutions in regard to the extent of division of labor among experts in these various fields of guidance, it is quite generally recognized that records of important facts discovered and advice given in all conferences should at all times be available to the student's educational advisor. All guidance work for each student should clear through and be coordinated by the student's educational guide, who should serve as the chairman of the student's guidance committee, composed of all the persons who may have been asked to share in the diagnosis and prescription for that student.

In order that the various types of guidance service and the new methods of instruction may be offered under the most favorable circumstances, much attention has been given recently to student living conditions and facilities. New housing plans, providing not merely a place for board and room, but providing also adequate facilities for the development of wholesome recrea-

tional, cultural, social, and moral elements in student life, are quite the order of the day.

Course Offerings.—When old fields of knowledge were broadened and new fields explored by a most praise-worthy activity in research, which began to bloom and produce fruit in the closing decades of the last century, there came a perfect flood of new courses of wondrous variety and description. A critical examination of the courses announced a few years ago in any one of two dozen departments in almost any college shows that perhaps half of the courses in a typical department could not justify themselves on any ground, save one—they offered the instructors opportunities to pursue pet hobbies in a very limited part of a field—and that the course offerings of the department were not properly related and balanced. The much-needed and too-long-delayed critical examination of departmental offerings has been produced in a steadily increasing number of colleges in the last few years by study of the problem of educational guidance.

In what may be termed the "chaotic" period, when the wide-open elective system ran riotously into utter confusion—a period which lasted in most institutions until ten or less than ten years ago, and still persists in some institutions—most departmental introductory courses were designed with the sole purpose of preparing students for advanced courses in the respective departments. It seemed that nearly every department framed its curriculum as though the intellectual sun rose and set within its boundaries, as though every worthy student must desire to specialize in that department, and as though that department had a life-long vested interest in every student who elected its introductory course.

In the last decade a basic theory of college education has been put before us with increasing forcefulness; though a student who enters college with a well defined educational aim should be given opportunity and encouragement to pursue that aim from the beginning of his freshman year, the major emphasis in the junior college years should be placed upon breadth of educational experience; and, though general education should continue in senior college, the major emphasis of the last two years should be upon concentration in, and depth of penetration of, some particular field of thought. Thus the attention of each department

has been called to its obligation to offer appropriate introductory work to no less than three types of students: first, students who expect to center their senior college concentration in and around that department; second, students who know that they will not specialize in that department and yet desire its introductory work for the sake of rounding out a general education, or as an aid to work in a related field of thought; third, students who have not determined upon a field of concentration but are looking for what may become for them a major educational interest.

Though one department may find it possible, after careful study and planning, to design and offer a single course which will serve adequately the needs of all three types of students, another department may find it necessary to offer two introductory courses—one for the first type, and another for the second and third types of students. In the last few years one department after another, in our better colleges, has studied its course offerings and has had the courage to scrap many of its old courses and introduce a new set, fewer in number and arranged in a well ordered, progressive sequence, with elementary courses designed not only to furnish the foundation material necessarily prerequisite for the departmental advanced courses, but also to serve the needs of students who are interested in a particular department only in so far as it contributes to general education.

One of the most significant products of the study recently devoted to educational objectives and the curriculum has been a new type of course called an orientation or survey course. Though the first of these courses to attract wide-spread attention was in the field of the social sciences, similar courses have been developed in the natural sciences, the humanities, and the fine arts. In the main they are freshman courses designed to orient the student in a large field of thought which, it is now recognized, frequently runs through and across many of the artificial boundary lines of the numerous departmental compartments which universities have developed and formalized. One example, no longer in the experimental stage but a proven success, is a course which covers the whole field of the physical and biological sciences. For a student who may want no more than an introduction to the field of science, this course seems to be more profitable than any one of the old style departmental introduc-

tory courses; and for the student who expects to specialize in one of the sciences, this course gives an excellent background for later concentration—it shows him the true position of his specialty in a larger field of thought, together with the contributing values of each specialized department for the others in the larger field of thought.

Still another type of new course is sometimes called a "correlation course," which attempts to give to students a total view of life problems in place of the scattered part-views presented in narrow departmental courses. Such courses employ what is called the "situation-technique" rather than the "subject-technique." A similar trend is reflected in the following: the "project course," which is made to center around the student's life interest; the establishment of a Department of American Citizenship, in which courses are organized to deal with problems of American citizenship more in accordance with the actual experience one is likely to have with those problems than do the traditional courses in political science; the establishment of a Department of Euthenics; the establishment of a Department of Biography; and the offering of courses in Human Relations in Industry. Thus there is a well defined tendency to offer new courses which are less academic and more realistic in character in that they cut across many of the traditional departmental lines and are more closely related to the various phases and activities of life as it is actually lived. *Quo warranto* proceedings have been served on subject matter that has been traditionally standard, and if vital reasons for its retention could not be shown it has been replaced by material which is more essential to the student preparing for life in a rapidly changing civilization. To the same end there is a marked tendency to reduce the importance of the departmental unit and to substitute for it the divisional unit, composed of a group of logically related departments, in educational administration.

Instruction.—The following appeared in Charles Brockden Brown's *Monthly Magazine and American Review* for April 1799: "Within a few years past there has arisen in the United States a kind of *mania* which has had for its object the establishment of *Colleges*. Scarcely a state in the union but has thought one of these institutions within itself necessary. . . . Three-

fourths of the colleges in the United States have professors wretchedly unqualified for their station. . . . I have known young gentlemen going home with A.B. affixed to their names without being able to construe the diploma which certified their standing."

It is indeed refreshing to find our colleges giving increased attention to instruction, not merely on the score of subject matter content, but also in regard to the personnel of the instructing staff and methods. In the later decades of the last century and the early years of the present century, our faculty members developed research productivity to a remarkable degree. I would be the last person to belittle the importance of research. It is a well known fact, however, that in too many institutions research was made a fetish to the extent that good teaching was not only neglected but was actually scorned. Faculty members were appointed in too many instances for research ability only, without inquiry regarding teaching interest or ability. Every university worthy of the name should be able to afford a few research appointments for some of our most remarkable researchers who have neither interest in nor talent for teaching; such men more often than not can work successfully with a few advanced graduate students, but these men and undergraduate students should not be made to suffer together. There is no inherent incompatibility between effective teaching and research; indeed the latter should promote the former, if the faculty member has anything approaching a proper sense of values and proportions. Teaching interest and ability is actually being given more consideration in faculty appointments than at any time in the last half century.

And as for methods of instruction, it is no longer a disgrace to confess an interest in the study of, and experimentation with, new methods. The lecture method, "by which the contents of the professor's notes get into the note-book of the student without passing through the mind of either"—that relic of the period when printed books were scarce—is being questioned so that its abuses may be eliminated and its profitable uses stimulated.

Numerous plans and devices have been introduced to enlist the interest of faculty members in the improvement of instruction. Rating sheets, on which students are asked to rate their instruc-

tors, as employed injudiciously in some institutions, seem to have been used as a club over the heads of the faculty and have not produced altogether desirable results. Perhaps the most effective plan yet adopted gives the faculty much freedom to experiment with methods of instruction, with encouragement to do so in the form of assurance that significant contributions in the field of college education will receive recognition in promotions in rank and advances in salary comparable to the same forms of recognition given for significant research productivity at the graduate level. As long as promotions and salary increases are awarded solely or even mainly for research productivity so defined as not to include research in instructional methods and results, so long will instruction be scorned and neglected. Each year an increasing number of institutions are coming to realize this, and, in not a few, special research bureaus in the field of higher education have been established. Thus the popular concept of what is respectable research work has been broadened to include what has all along supposedly, if not actually, been the main purpose of a college and one of the two major purposes of a university—education.

Thus has developed a real renaissance in college education. No longer are freshmen, sophomores, juniors, seniors, and graduate students mixed indiscriminately in the same classes, for we are designing our courses and regulating class enrolment on the basis of appropriate levels of advancement. Illuminating experiments with the size of classes, sectioning on the basis of ability, promotion at any time on the basis of demonstrated ability, special treatment for leading students, independent study periods (with classes suspended), and various forms of the tutorial and preceptorial systems are well under way with much promise for valuable effects upon future procedure.

One of the most noteworthy examples of special treatment for leading students has swept across the country in the form of honors courses. Though details of practice differ widely, the basic feature of all honors plans provides for the better students in the last two years release from much of the formal and perfunctory class performance and gives much freedom and encouragement for self-education. Under the guidance of a tutor or departmental counselor each student pursues an individually

approved program of work, depending upon his special interests and aptitudes. The student is awarded the bachelor's degree with honors provided he pursues his program successfully and passes a final comprehensive examination in the field of the honors awarded—an examination which is of far more value as a demonstration of ability to think straight and to use factual information intelligently (real mastery of a large field of thought), than any number of examinations upon the completion of small units of work in isolated courses. This is excellent, as far as it goes, but it affects only the top stratum of our student body and puts significant meaning into college work for but a few. I confess that my main interest in honors systems is found in the suggestions and examples they offer for modification of our procedure with the entire student body.

In order to promote student interest in scholarship most colleges have for many years offered for records of distinction such forms of encouragement as scholarships, money prizes, special privileges in regard to class attendance and course elections, honor certificates, election to honorary scholarship societies, and the award of the degree with honors; but all of these have been scorned by our students as "sounding brass and a tinkling cymbal." We have recently learned that student objection to these forms of encouragement rested in the basis of award which, under our traditional system of educational measurement in terms of marks and course credits, did not discriminate genuine ability and achievement from mere diligence and memory. Students have rightly protested: Don't ask us to be, and don't reward us for being, merely good sponges and parrots; don't tell us every thing and don't do all our thinking for us; give us fewer petty tasks; give us more formidable and more significant objectives and goals; give us helpful guidance and assistance as we may need it, but give us also more freedom, independence, and responsibility for our own educational development.

This is significant because every institution that has accepted any part of such a challenge has found that the students have played their parts ably and faithfully with profit to themselves, to their institution, and to society. But for any institution to accept the challenge in its entirety involves a complete, and not

merely partial, revision of our plan of educational measurements.

Educational Measurements.—For some time many of us who have studied college education have questioned the most basic feature of degree requirements as now administered—the course unit and course credit system. If we are to live up to the definition of education as a process by which one's mind is given discipline and discrimination, orientation in the modern world and understanding of it, and the adult ability to derive satisfaction from knowledge and from the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake, we must free our students from the toils of the credit system, stated in terms of hours or courses, a certain mystic number of which is the *sine qua non* for a degree.

Our secondary schools have made remarkable progress in the last few years. Our high school graduates in many instances are now better educated than were many college graduates a few decades ago. Our college undergraduates are keener, more alert, more inquisitive, and more active intellectually than were the undergraduates of two decades ago. Though some of our state institutions, for political or legal reasons, are unable to limit numbers or to require for entrance anything more than a certificate from an accredited high school, many colleges have limited their numbers and have invoked selective admission to insure higher quality. Institutions of the latter type have the best opportunities to individualize, to humanize, and to vitalize their educational processes; they should have in mind, as ends to be attained so far as may be practicable, (a) the substitution of fields of study for the present course units, (b) the provision of opportunity for the exceptional student to progress as rapidly as his interest and capacity may lead and permit, (c) the abolition of the present system of counting credits for a degree and the substitution therefore of comprehensive examinations and whatever other methods of demonstrating accomplishment may be expedient, and (d) in general, greater emphasis upon the student's opportunity for responsibility for his own education.

All that is necessary for an institution to adopt such a program is to gather together the best of the successfully tested developments, and then take the final step which seems to require most courage—the substitution of the demonstration of achieve-

ment for the book-keeping system of hours and course credits. Because we are so much the slaves of custom in regard to administrative practices and machinery once adopted, this step seems a most radical departure. Though the institution first to take such a step may justly be said to be courageous, the step cannot justly be said to be dangerously or extremely radical in view of the progressive developments wrought in recent years in college education, in view of what we know about different types of examinations, and in view of the almost unanimous agreement that the course-credit system is the most formidable impediment in the path of progress in the field of college education.

College students have long been thoroughly disgusted with being required to play a long series of little games with this, that, and the other instructor, the object of each little game being to beat the instructor out of a credit with a grade high enough to be counted as one of the number required for a degree. Their disgust has come from the fact that they have been unable to see a reasonable degree of correlation between such a procedure and real educational development and achievement. They have been able immediately to see such a correlation in, and have therefore welcomed, the use of achievement tests to determine the student's ability to express himself with clarity and accuracy in written English, the use of achievement tests to determine his ability to read with facility and understanding in a foreign language, the use of placement tests to determine where a student really, and not merely supposedly, belongs in a well integrated and correlated series of courses in a particular subject, and the use of comprehensive examinations to determine the extent of the student's mastery of the factual information, the methods and habits of thought, the techniques and skills, of a large and important field of thought. The number and percentage of students working for honors has greatly increased whenever an institution has adopted the plan of awarding degrees on comprehensive examinations—a plan which discriminates genuine achievement and mastery from mere diligence and memory. Furthermore, students welcome the divorce of the examining, marking, and credit-awarding function from the instructional function, because they realize that this establishes more

wholesome relationships between instructor and student; the student sees that under such conditions he and the instructor are working in a common cause—the educational development of the student—that they are not opponents in the game, but are team-mates, both striving to prepare the student to be able to demonstrate to the satisfaction of an independent and unprejudiced agency, an examining board, that he has developed his intellectual powers and has really achieved something of significance educationally.

Alumni (Alumnae) Education Programs.—Though there are other interesting and important developments which have not been mentioned in this paper and must be left to such attention as those participating in the discussion may see fit to give them, there is one that should at least be listed here, namely, alumni education programs. A number of institutions have at last realized that graduation from college does not mean the end of the educational process and have prepared syllabi and numerous subject bibliographies for their alumni who may wish to pursue courses of general reading or serious study. In many instances such services have been well designed and are well administered, as is testified by the number of alumni who are taking advantage of the opportunities offered. In some institutions alumni week at commencement time has been transformed from a program of buffoonery and worse into an educational week with courses of lectures to suit many different tastes and interests well patronized by alumni who return for educational inspiration.

Conclusion.—On the basis of a thorough examination the Doctors report that the patient (the Liberal Arts College), after having been in a moribund and comatose condition for a dangerously long period, rallied remarkably; she regained strength slowly at first, and then astoundingly rapidly; and at the present time is more vigorous than ever before, fairly surcharged with new life, and is well started on a period of useful service which promises to be more glorious than any previous period in a long career.

A PROPOSED PLAN OF HONORS OR TUTORIAL WORK FOR COLGATE

C. H. THURBER

DEAN OF COLGATE UNIVERSITY

UNDOUBTEDLY colleges have been very wasteful of the most precious substances they possess, namely, the intellectual abilities of their very superior and superior students. Over one million students are now in attendance in American colleges and universities. The provisions which have been made for the average or below average college student have been such that we have been able to give a large number of students a fairly satisfactory general education. A democracy, however, must obtain its leadership from its exceptional individuals. While the colleges have done well by the average students, provisions so the student of superior capacity shall reach his highest intellectual attainment have been lacking. To check this waste appears to me to be the most challenging problem which now confronts us. The way to do this seems comparatively clear: students who have the capacity and the intellectual curiosity should have the opportunity for independent study under faculty guidance. From this type of student we may rightfully expect a much greater achievement, a much more thorough mastery of his field of study than we can expect of the average student. We may well expect these superior students to attain a plane of accomplishment distinctly higher than that ordinarily expected of the A.B. candidate. Many such students at graduation should be comparable to or superior to those who have ordinarily received the M.A. degree.

My hope is that we shall eventually set up a program which will be so flexible that a student of very superior capacity may progress as rapidly as his achievement warrants and that he will be allowed to graduate whenever he is able to demonstrate that he has developed the proper power. But since we are met to discuss ways of developing greater power on the part of those who have demonstrated superior ability during their junior college years, let us not digress from this program at this point.

Assuming that the student will complete all the general requirements of the college and his general education by the conclusion of his sophomore year, what procedures shall be utilized to stimulate superior students to such accomplishments during their last two years? Several factors must enter into a program that is to be carried through successfully, it seems to me. The scheme among other things must provide for distinctions, rewards and satisfactions. The student who sets up scholarship as the objective of his college course should be given distinction at graduation commensurate with his achievement. If at the conclusion of his course he has shown very superior scholarship in his field, he should be graduated *summa cum laude*; if quite superior, *magna cum laude*; and if superior, *cum laude*. And only students who have followed this more exacting course of study should be so honored.

The student who elects and is elected to this more exacting pursuit of scholarship should be given further recognition by his faculty. The vital interest of these students in scholarship should be recognized by excusing them from as many formal regulations as possible with the aim in view of having them feel that they have arrived at man's estate and have demonstrated that they are ready to do a scholarly piece of work in a man's way. The scheme should then guarantee to those vitally interested in the intellectual life far greater opportunity for independent study and for more intensive study, and for more creative work in their respective fields than is now afforded.

All of us recognize that highly purposive action and persistence when coupled with superior intellectual ability are the factors which make for high achievement. These students who are selected to carry on under the independent study plan in the senior college will have clearly demonstrated these qualities through their previous work in college. We can well afford to take some chances with such students which we do not now feel we can take with the average student. We may allow superior students to concentrate to a greater extent because we may expect their intellectual curiosity and their interests to be sufficient to cause them to read widely. But the plan I am proposing not only involves intensive concentration, but also has as one of its objectives the integration of the major field of study with

other immediately related fields. For all knowledge is related! Complete insight and understanding of the problems in a field cannot be obtained by students through studying highly specialized segments of knowledge as taught through some courses in our colleges and universities. It is the pursuit of such specialties on the part of the undergraduates that results in our graduating many individuals with "split and partial minds" rather than thoroughly educated persons.

The plan which I shall propose has as its objective the education of the individual. What do I mean by this? I mean the development of the individual intellectually so he can proceed "under his own steam." I mean that our program should be so organized that we stop treating these students' heads as though they were buckets into which to pour information and that we proceed on the basis that to become educated one must "root out" the solutions to problems for himself. The passive reception and memorization of ideas given to students by the instructor does not necessarily educate the individual at all. Contrariwise, this process may make "leaners" out of individuals who have very considerable capacity, for they learn only to return to these same founts for further information.

Yet our program should be so arranged that individuals may master the science and the art of working out solutions to problems by actually working them out under the guidance of skilful instructors. Instead of a procedure by which they become "leaners" these students should be so treated that they must assume the responsibility for obtaining solutions through their own initiative. They should take pride in developing their ability to work independently and in taking and defending positions which may not coincide with the point of view of their instructor. When those who are graduating have gathered sufficient confidence in themselves to feel that they may attack a problem by gathering, analyzing, and interpreting data concerning the problem and propose solutions to the problem, then may we feel confident that these Colgate graduates shall have developed sufficient intellectual power so they may make vital contributions to their contemporary life.

At the end of two years of intensive work all students who have pursued the independent study program will be expected

to show the extent of their accomplishments through comprehensive examinations on the work they have covered during the two years.

It is too much to expect or desire that any proposed plan should be carried through with uniformity by all groups or divisions of work. But we may formulate some plans of procedure which may be suggestive and to an extent general for all divisions.

Now for an example of the plan itself. When the plan is in full operation it will be expected that each student will attend two seminars a week lasting from two and one-half to three hours at a time. If the student were carrying on under the honors or tutorial scheme in English, then he would have one seminar per semester for four semesters or four English seminars during his last two years. Now English literature should quite probably be closely integrated with English history and philosophy or fine arts. This student may, therefore, in his junior year carry one seminar in history during the first semester and one seminar in philosophy during the second semester in addition to the continuous seminar work in English. More advanced seminars in these same fields would be carried in the senior year. In other words, fifty per cent of the honors work during the last two years would be devoted to the field in which the student was concentrating and the other fifty per cent would be divided between two other fields which are vitally related to the field in which the student is concentrating. Certain variations from this division of time may very well be anticipated in certain of the sciences.

These honors students will be privileged to attend as many or as few of the regular classes as may seem profitable, though in this respect they should be guided by their respective tutors.

It is to be hoped when the plan is more fully developed that general lectures which shall run parallel to certain of the seminars may be arranged to supplement this type of instruction.

COLLEGE MADE CITIZENS

ALBERT RUSSELL ELLINGWOOD

DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE, NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

THE ultimate objectives of education are as numerous as the educational philosophers who have expounded them. But there is one upon which American educators should agree—the production of better citizens. We have blazed the way in the application of democracy to the government of a great country. Unless the average voter is capable of making an intelligent decision upon the major issues presented to him, unless the data upon which an informed decision must be based are accessible to him, and unless he has the desire, will and skill to possess himself of the necessary facts, think his way through them to a reasoned conclusion, and act upon it, the democracy is certainly a delusion and may become a snare. It is, for the most part, beyond the power of the citizen to affect the accessibility of the facts required to understand many governmental problems. Still, even under present conditions, most citizens could approach nearer to the truth than they do, if they knew where to seek facts, how to recognize them, and what to do with them, and if they cared to take the trouble. These requirements are subjective, and fall within the province of education. We do not have to take our citizens as we find them; we can make better citizens. We must make better citizens.

In the attainment of this purpose the liberal arts college has a special responsibility. This is true partly because the college deals with the future member of the electorate when he has reached an age characterized by sufficient maturity, judgment and sense of values, and clothed in enough familiarity with the stereotyped ideas of society, so that it is not unreasonable to assume that he has both the ability and inclination to learn how to grapple with the duties pertaining to citizenship. Standing on the threshold of civic manhood with the accumulated training and information furnished by a long and varied educational program, he is surely better equipped than at any earlier period to undertake the study of the questions which he or his political representatives will have to decide. Then, too, the college has a

peculiar responsibility because public opinion is created and controlled to such a large extent by those who go forth from its doors. Certainly it is particularly desirable that the ministers, lawyers, legislators, editors, teachers and writers of the coming generations shall have not only an alert and unfeigned interest in issues upon which the general welfare depends, but also a keen desire to know the pertinent facts, some facility in finding them, and appropriate skill in using them. Finally, the college is usually better equipped than any other unit in our educational system to give a young man or woman the tools of citizenship and teach their use.

How well does the college meet this responsibility? Unquestionably it can do more than it is now doing, for in most institutions we find no organized attempt to focus the diverse resources of the departments most directly concerned upon preparation for citizenship at the time when it will be most valuable and comprehensible to the embryonic citizen. In furtherance of its civic duty, it must do more than it is doing to teach him how to mobilize his intellectual forces for the struggle with the problems of the Great Society. It must convince him of the interest and importance of these problems to him, give him a living conception of their invariable many-sidedness, and cultivate in him a high sense of civic responsibility.

It has always been easier for an educator to describe the finished product he would like to have than to tell how to get it. Many changes in the curriculum of the social sciences and in methods of teaching might be suggested. One that could be tried with little inconvenience, is a senior course in current problems of citizenship, taught cooperatively in small classes by a method which recognizes that learning comes through doing.

From what has already been said, it should be quite apparent why the senior year is the best possible time. Our student has as a rule become a man, and bears the stamp of a maturity traditionally recognized in private and public law. At the climax of his educational career, he is as well stocked with heterogeneous information as could reasonably be expected under a system where a degree results from the molecular accretion of small agglomerations of "credit-hours." He knows the location of a few Pierian springs and can tap them for contributions when

necessary. He has had a modicum of experience in collecting, evaluating and arranging data, knows something of mental processes, has an elementary acquaintance with the principles of reflective thinking, and possesses some familiarity with the pitfalls of inductive and deductive reasoning. Usually he is already a member of the electorate when he approaches the door labeled "Commencement," and as a citizen in his own right may fairly ask whether his college can help him to be a better one. In any case, he is near enough to responsible citizenship so that such a course, adequately given, would not be just another academic exercise in the shadow of the cloisters but a living, breathing thing, saturated with the atmosphere of reality.

The construction of a philosophy of life should begin with life and not with philosophy. A course in current problems, properly conducted, should give the student an excellent start in the development of a social philosophy characterized by unusual persistence and flexibility. The lasting quality of an experience varies directly with the intensity of the present interest. With most people interest in the concrete and practical is incomparably greater than interest in the abstract and theoretical. If a student builds up his philosophy gradually and inductively by wrestling with tangible situations and living conflicts, he will have a firmer grasp of the principles which he at length evolves, a greater confidence in their validity, and a more facile skill in applying them. The college can rid itself of the long-standing imputation of academic aloofness from the world and make the transition of the student from the campus to the forum and the market-place far smoother, if, as it speeds him on his way, it teaches him how to apply his hard-won intellectual tools to the materials of the new environment. A problems course in the senior year would be a welcome bridge from the classroom to citizenship. Some will point out that the alleged aloofness, if not wholly imaginary, is at least highly exaggerated. This is increasingly true. Competent instructors in the social sciences do not teach in a vacuum, exhibiting speculative propositions in a gallery of rarefied theory. They draw more and more on contemporary controversy and practice for illustrative material. They agree unhesitatingly with Mr. A. N. Whitehead that "the

understanding which we want is an understanding of an inconsistent present."

However, the student rarely sees the complete picture, and practically never sees all of it at the same time. We give him in installments at irregular intervals over a period of three or four years an incomplete congeries of jig-saw puzzle fragments, and expect him to evolve a critique of the picture. Departmentalization of the social sciences is undoubtedly of great value for certain purposes. It is useful in the development of classification, in giving emphasis to categorical characterization, and in accentuating the contrast and variety of different methods. So, too, a railroad map may be better for one purpose, an automobile map for another, a land office map for a third, a contour map for a fourth, and so on. Yet for some purposes integration is equally necessary. Our problems course, then, must be a co-operative enterprise, the joint product of instructors in history, economics, political science, sociology, law, psychology, philosophy, ethics, and perhaps in some cases other branches of learning.

The method of teaching such a course is of prime importance, for its virtue is found not only in its immediate content but in the intellectual habits it establishes. The content, indeed, will change from year to year, for, *ex hypothesi*, it deals with *current* problems. But obviously the benefit of the course is transient unless it cultivates in the student a technique that will enable him to wrestle successfully with the problems of tomorrow and tomorrow. It goes without saying that the technique must be one that the average college graduate can use with the time and resources at his disposal. He will not, as a rule, have a great reference library within easy reach, nor will he have the time, ability or disposition to produce a doctoral dissertation on every important public question that arises. But that does not mean that he should be left an easy prey to the partisan newspaper, popular magazine, and trade journal with their subtle special pleading, or be exposed, a defenseless victim, to the specious harangues of subsidized demagogues. He can learn the difference between facts and opinions, and between issues of fact and issues of opinion. He can be brought to realize that many public questions have more than one facet, and that circum-

navigation with an open mind and an observing eye should precede judgment. He can be encouraged to recognize the interdependence of these questions and the consequent necessity for orientation and perspective. He can become familiar with the more readily accessible sources of information, primary and secondary, relating to matters of public interest, and with the special merits and weaknesses of each. He can learn which of the commoner sources are more worthy of credence and which are open to suspicion. He can become acquainted with the more common criteria of credibility, and acquire some skill in detecting intrinsic evidence of untrustworthiness. He can be instructed in the art of winnowing out the relevant from the irrelevant and separating that which is admitted from that which is controverted, so that the critical issues will be thrust into a position of prominence where attention can be concentrated upon them. He can learn to judge with some impartiality the weight of argument and counter-argument, rebuttal and surrebuttal, and to cast up the balance. In a word, he can be given an opportunity to acquire the knowledge and technique necessary to enable him to assemble with reasonable facility and celerity the obtainable data, array them, correlate them, appraise them, and mount upon them to conclusions in which he has high confidence.

Of course education of this character, like most serious education, comes through practice, not precept. The utilization of knowledge is a difficult art, and proficiency is gained by performance, not observation. It is difficult to imagine an educational method that would be more effective in discouraging the student from making that indefatigable personal effort by which alone he can become truly educated, than the lecture system in its typical form. Technical skill in citizenship can no more be transferred by lecturing than can technical skill in music or mountaineering. The student learns how to do the thing well only by doing it for himself, over and over again, under expert supervision and unsparing criticism. The process is time-consuming, but the time is well spent. The expert supervision is expensive, but a more competent citizenry is not a luxury for a democracy. Classes would have to be small, for each student will need considerable individual attention, especially in his

initial enterprises. Yet they should be large enough to furnish the student a forum for the testing of his conclusions, where he can learn to battle for his convictions against the cross-currents of a public opinion in miniature. He must learn to produce results that will stand up under relentless criticism. The class would also be a clearing-house for information on all questions studied, for each student can deal directly with a very small number of the problems available in a given year. The members of the class would profit by each other's experience, learn from each other's mistakes, and sharpen their critical faculties by appraising each other's work. The burden upon the instructors would be very heavy, partly because of the necessity for individualistic guidance, partly because of the incessantly changing subject matter. However, it should be an extremely interesting course for these very reasons. It goes without saying that it is not a course to be turned over to part-time graduate assistants or even immature instructors. It will tax the pedagogic skill of experienced teachers, and is of sufficient importance to justify its allocation to professors of proved ability who have broad civic vision, inspirational qualities and a belief in the values of the project.

Some will say that the proposal which is the subject of this discussion seems to assume that college professors are supermen, pre-eminently qualified to pronounce unimpeachable judgments upon all the problems of the day. The writer is under no such delusion, nor does the proposal necessarily involve such an assumption. Rather is it based on the more modest premise that public questions have an intellectual content and should be dealt with rationally rather than emotionally, and that consequently an educated man is more competent to assume civic responsibilities than an uneducated man. If this premise is untrue, then public education through the university is deprived of much of its justification and democracy must always be a fiction. College and university professors have their prejudices, like other people, and their convictions on issues of the day may be as uninformed and unreasoned as one would expect from any college graduate. After all, most of them have received no more special training for citizenship than the undergraduate of today.

Yet many teachers can be found who are able to keep their convictions in leash and maintain something approaching a judicial neutrality or scientific impartiality in guiding the young men and women who come within their academic orbit. And it should be stressed that the instructor in our course is not there to expound the holy and unalterable truth *ex cathedra*, but to organize the class and program, and guide and criticize the student as he works.

It was recognized at the outset of this discussion that technical proficiency in dealing with social and political problems must be coupled with a sense of responsibility and the desire and will to act, for unless the knowledge of good citizenship fructifies in action, it is useless. These are things that can hardly be taught directly. Like most dispositions, they grow out of one's experience and environment. But the mastery of an art not only makes it possible to practice it but increases the likelihood that it will be practiced; and one may fairly expect that men who for nine months have experienced the satisfaction of reasoning out their political conclusions will be inclined to continue to do so. The very atmosphere of discussion in such a class as we have described should enkindle a consciousness of the dignity and obligations of citizenship. One might hope, too, for similar subjective by-products of general utility. In so far as a student learns the value of open-mindedness, accuracy, thoroughness, discrimination and the other attributes of the "scientific approach," gains in intellectual dexterity and precision, and develops sound mental habits, he is on the way to become a better man as well as a better citizen.

It will be readily seen that the idea is not exhausted by the foregoing discussion. The college need not stop with the seniors, but may offer some regular guidance in the handling of current problems to alumni who care to take advantage of its assistance; the need for such guidance and various ways in which it could be given are well expounded in the recent report on *Alumni and Adult Education*, by the American Association for Adult Education. It could publish a periodical bulletin containing pro and con outlines and critical bibliographical lists, to be sold to anyone interested. Possibly the time may come when an enterprising, public-spirited, and well-endowed university may set

up a current problems information service and undertake to furnish full and impartial reports on public questions on order; many leaders of public thought could make good use of it.

But this is looking far beyond the primary suggestion of this article, and the sketch of ramifications need not be elaborated so carefully till the main road is laid down. But the college can without delay do better by its seniors than it is now doing. It can, without much expense or effort, set in motion some machinery for the improvement of citizenship, such as that described above. The precise pattern of that machinery may vary from place to place, provided only that it subserve the following purposes: (1) to counteract the departmentalization of knowledge to which the present curriculum tends, "that fatal disconnection of subjects which kills the vitality of our modern curriculum," by emphasizing interrelationships and encouraging the student to synthesize the knowledge at his command; (2) to make the student realize that his college education is not a thing altogether apart from the outside world in which he is going to spend the greater part of his life, that the principles or standards he learns in his different courses are not abstractions to be put on or off for certain occasions like a cloak, but that they are applicable to the conditions and problems of life, and, if effectively employed, will lead to a richer and more useful citizenship; (3) to guide him in making this direct application to a select group of civic problems in as wide a variety of fields as practicable, chosen from the current stream of world history, in order to make clear the method of procedure and to develop in so far as time permits the habit of attacking current questions with one's intellectual equipment rather than dealing with them as one's prejudices may dictate; (4) to arouse in the student a live interest in current events or movements of major importance, and develop in him a desire to know the facts concerning them and a disposition to form reasoned opinions about them; and, (5) to assist him in the development of a philosophy of life based upon openmindedness, a sense of justice and a love of truth.

THE PLACE OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES IN A LIBERAL EDUCATION*

ROBERT LINCOLN KELLY

THE development of liberal education on the college level in the United States has expressed itself in three great movements.

First, the contribution of the colonial colleges.

Second, the contribution of the physical and biological sciences.

Third, the contribution of the social sciences.

The colonial period was characterized by the transportation, transplanting and adaptation of European, chiefly English, models. While the colonial college was vocational in purpose, instituted to assist in developing ministers of the gospel and leaders in other forms of public life, it was essentially liberal in subject matter. The subjects taught to the future ministers and statesmen were Latin, Greek and mathematics. The colleges did not teach either theology or politics. The program of study of the college was set during the colonial period and it remained set for two centuries and a quarter.

A program so thoroughly crystallized could only be upset and pulverized by revolutionary methods. The introduction of the natural sciences into the college program was brought about as a result of a fight, and a very prolonged fight at that. Charles W. Eliot was perhaps the most distinguished captain of the invading army. He fought under the standards of a new type of subject matter and a new method. He contended against two rather well organized armies. There was the stand-pat army which represented the traditional curriculum, and there was the army of the scientists themselves, marshalled by no less distinguished a general than Louis Agassiz, who opposed him because they thought he stood for applied science rather than pure science. The approval by the Overseers of Harvard University of his election to the presidency of that institution by the Corporation was held up some months while this battle was being fought.

* Address before the Second Annual Conference on the Teaching of the Social Sciences, Northwestern University, April 3, 1931.

The process by which the social sciences have attained their remarkable place in the college program has neither been that of adaptation nor of revolution. It has been a silent evolutionary process extending over approximately a half-century of time. The social sciences have won their way without a fight, and even without propaganda through the sheer appeal of their subject matter, their method and their personnel.

Perhaps a worthy distinction between the natural sciences and the social sciences may be suggested in that the former deal with things and the latter deal with persons. The social sciences report the behavior of persons as individuals, of persons in groups, and mankind has always been interested in mankind.

For some years it has been true that almost the entire program of the liberal college is a socialized program. The natural sciences and the social sciences are complementary. While the social sciences are not dealing with things, they are using the scientific method. Each group, therefore, is influenced vitally by the other group.

The extent to which this evolution in the field of the social sciences has been achieved is not fully realized. That it has been achieved has been demonstrated by the statistical method. For a number of years a series of studies was carried on by the Association of American Colleges, the Carnegie Foundation, the United States Bureau of Education and other agencies into the actual subject matter offered for admission to college in the one case and for graduation from college in the other. It was discovered that during the years 1903-1922 in ninety-four different institutions 15,000 students offered 225,000 entrance units distributed on a percentage basis in the following way.

English: Prescribed 19 per cent; recommended 1; presented 23.

Mathematics: Prescribed 16; recommended 1; presented 20.

Foreign Languages: Prescribed 11; recommended 19; presented 29.

French: Prescribed and recommended 4; presented 9.

Other Languages: Little prescription; recommended 10.5; presented 3.5.

History: Prescribed 5.5; recommended 2; presented 15.5.

Science: Prescribed 1; recommended 2; presented 9.

Other Subjects: Frequently recommended 11; seldom prescribed 2; entirely free 11; offered 3.

Summary: Entering students presented more English, mathematics and foreign languages and *much more* history and science than were either prescribed or recommended, and in order to do this took but an eighth of the options allowed them in other subjects.

During the same years seven studies were made of the offerings for college graduation covering nearly three million college hours of 90,000 students in seventy-three institutions. The results are found in the following percentages:

Foreign Languages: Prescribed 10; recommended 5; taken 20.

History and Related Subjects: Prescribed 4; recommended 2; taken 19.

Science: Prescribed 6.5; recommended 4.5; taken 19.

English: Prescribed 8; recommended 1; taken 16.

Mathematics: Prescribed 4; recommended 2; taken 7.

Philosophy, etc.: Prescribed 2; recommended 1; taken 6.

Summary: In general, while the prescription and recommendation of specific subjects for the bachelor's degree grew more flexible, concentration of the students on the half-dozen subjects that have been traditionally considered standard and fundamental changed but little, so that in response to a prescription of such subjects for one-third of their college work, 34 per cent of the students devoted seven-eighths, 87 per cent, of their time to them.

It is notable that in the case of admissions the greatest percentage of gain in subjects taken over prescriptions and recommendations was in the fields of history and science, and that the same was true in the offerings for the baccalaureate degree. Of course in both these cases the term history includes what may properly be called the social sciences.

The problem of the social science group therefore today is not that of gaining a place in the sun; the problem is rather of justifying the prestige they have already won, of giving a good account of their stewardship, of improving the program of the liberal college and the social life of which the liberal college is one of the chief instruments.

When President Eliot was carrying on his vigorous conflict in behalf of the laboratory method within the college he once said: "The student of natural science scrutinizes, touches, weighs, measures, analyzes, dissects and watches things." I am inclined to emphasize "things"; President Eliot did not do so, perhaps. He took things for granted for his purpose. He spoke as a chemist and he was dealing with things.

It is an interesting fact, however, that later in life when he became the Grand Old Man of the American commonwealth, the counsellor to the American people, and spoke as a popular oracle, this great champion of scientific subject matter and method usually chose his topics from within the realm of the social sciences. Between the ages of eighty-five and ninety years he wrote and spoke upon: The League of Nations; The Swiss System of Military Training; Capital and Labor; Zionism; Social Hygiene; Unity Among the Churches; Prohibition; Presidential Election of 1920; Anglo-American Relations; Civil Service Reform; America's Rôle in the Near East.

But the social sciences are making a very conspicuous and constructive contribution to the liberal colleges in a process not mentioned by President Eliot in behalf of the natural sciences. The social sciences, also, scrutinize, touch, weigh, measure, analyze, dissect and watch things, and they do something besides. They *synthesize*.

I. One of the striking trends within the liberal college at this present moment is the cultivation of this habit of synthesizing. Social science teachers readily work in groups. They have inter-departmental relationships. They are interested in bringing parts together, in attempting to see the whole situation rather than an isolated phenomenon; they integrate; they coordinate; they attempt to unify, even to build up if possible a philosophy of life for the ever enlarging group. The teachers of the social sciences are contributing probably more than their share to the present movement in behalf of interdepartmentalization, inter-community action and action inter-collegiate, inter-state, inter-parliamentary, inter-racial, international.

II. But this is not to say that social science ignores the individual. The opportunities for individualization in our college instruction are certainly as frequent and as fruitful among the

social science group as they are elsewhere. Since social science teachers are dealing frankly with persons who are acknowledged as having minds, spirits, personality, character, this seems to be true in the nature of the case. President Nicholas Murray Butler remarked in his last annual report that if a university teacher denies that man has mind or spirit he may be able to train animals but he is not competent to teach human beings. The social sciences postulate the human spirit as the basis of their work. Their problem includes the question—How to formulate the industrial, social, economic and political problems of this generation that mankind may be better served; how to discover and if possible guide the irresistible energies of human behavior.

III. I wish to speak of a third contribution which the teachers of the social sciences are making to our college program. I refer to the method of research. In this field without doubt the physical and biological sciences have made a greater contribution than have the social sciences. The social sciences are confronting a great opportunity. There is before them in this field much unoccupied territory.

Of course, it must be insisted that, after, all a college is primarily a teaching institution. Its main business is to promote good teaching. The Association of American Colleges is definitely and officially committed to the improvement of college teaching, and it has been successful in enlisting the cooperation in a rather marked way of the graduate schools of the great universities. An increasing number of college presidents within the Association are attempting to devise methods of granting promotion to college teachers who do good teaching.

At the same time it is thoroughly recognized that research is always stimulating to a teaching program. As has been suggested, learning and discovering thrive together. "The fruit of one man's quest enlarges the knowledge of others." "Something of the temper of the adventurer is necessary to preserve us from scholastic pedantry."

Now in the college field some research work is being done but usually it is being done rather feebly. There are a few colleges throughout the country which have reported research work of a high order. The number of such colleges should certainly in-

crease. It is a part of the intellectual life program to which the Association of American Colleges is officially committed. The college should utilize the powerful motivation which is inherent in individual and cooperative research.

There are of course a good many college teachers who are not interested in research and frankly recognize that they are not equipped for such procedure. The movement, however, among the colleges to throw the students upon their initiative and to encourage independent study is accompanied by the movement to decrease the amount of routine class work, which has been such a burden to college teachers that no possible thought could be given to research, whatever teachers' aspirations might be.

A study of the reports which have been made of research projects thus far carried out on the college level indicate that most research is (a) within the field of the physical and biological sciences and that within the field of the social sciences such research as is being done is usually (b) within fields rather remotely related to the present life of the college. In a recent report contributed by President McConaughy of Wesleyan University* to the BULLETIN of the Association of American Colleges seven research projects are named as follows: The Influence of the American Indian, etc.; Ancient Religious Ideas and Early Classical History; First English Translators of the Classics; Guide to Historical Literature; Railroad Labor Disputes; Taxation; Classical Festivals.

The United States Office of Education is now announcing a conference to be held in Spokane, Wash., which is to follow in subject matter and method the conference recently held at the State College of Iowa. In *Bulletin No. 5*, 1931, the Office of Education reports the Iowa symposium on Home and Family Life in a Changing Civilization. In this conference such topics were considered as "The Christian Church as a Social Institution"; "The Family as a Social Institution"; "The Present Status of Agriculture"; "The Present Lot of Women"; "Educational, Social and Economic Changes"; "Nutrition and the School Child"; "Power Driven Machinery"; "Improved Means of Communication"; "Growth of Markets"; "Rise in the

* Association of American Colleges BULLETIN, Vol. XVI, No. 2, May, 1930, pp. 218-222.

Standards of Living"; "The Unbalanced Economic System"; "The State's Interest in the Family"; "The Cost of Raising Children"; "How Valuable is the Home today?", etc.

These conferences, together with President Hoover's Child Life Conference recently held at Washington, and others which have not received so much publicity, are certainly bringing out the fact that the frontiers of knowledge lie all about and even within the college campus. The colleges are being challenged to investigate the currents of life within their own dooryards. Last year President E. B. Wilson of the Social Science Research Council in a letter to the editor of the *BULLETIN* of the Association of American Colleges submitted a declaration adopted by that Council, in which, referring to the opportunities near at hand for research on the college level it was said:

Such a program need not issue in imposing monographs nor in works of outstanding authority, but tangible evidence of intellectual growth is indispensable. Research opportunities exist close at hand in every community.*

That the Social Science Research Council is very earnest in its desire to promote this type of research is demonstrated by the purpose which it has now announced to hold a conference of representatives of certain colleges with a view of considering the possibilities in this field. The vitality which the devotees of the social sciences have demonstrated in the past promises very much for the future in this field of careful and scientific research within the well equipped colleges of our country.

* Association of American Colleges *BULLETIN*, Vol. XVI, No. 3, November, 1930, p. 359.

THE SMALL COLLEGE IN AMERICA AND ITS CULTURE

IRVING MAURER

PRESIDENT OF BELOIT COLLEGE

THE term culture signifies the training in one's attitude which is the result of his living in a definite time and place. As related to the colleges the term can be used in two senses. By it may be meant the mind-set, if any, which results from life in a definite college world. By it may also be meant the life interests and emphases which emerge from a college functioning in a specific civilization at a definite time. These two aspects of culture may be related, but not necessarily. A rough-neck may graduate from a college which mediates a distinct culture. His culture is the result of the untouched world within a world—his language, his philosophy may reflect definite living conditions in a particular group, and he may have armored himself against the cultural life which the college was mediating all the time.

In the larger sense of culture the college may be expected to express the fact that it is functioning in a given civilization at a definite time. Culture has an element of timelessness; it has also a contemporaneous side, and it means nothing unless it have this side. I shall therefore endeavor to appraise or to describe the nature of the culture of colleges in America, the culture which we shall have a right to expect as a part of the things we pay for in our college education.

In the first place, the culture of the small Christian college in America will be distinctly an American culture.

It cannot help itself. It may attempt to produce a more cosmopolitan type of culture but there is really no such thing as cosmopolitan culture. Culture is possible only when a man lives in a given place and time. Consequently, we in the American colleges should be mature enough in our minds to define and evaluate the American aspects of our lives.

To be even more specific, it is the function of the American college to produce in the lives of its graduates a localized culture, part of the life of specific areas, sections, localities. The college of the Middle West will produce an American culture which can be distinguished from the culture of New England, of the Pacific

slope or of various parts of the South. While we may endeavor to iron out colloquial expressions I hope that we shall not entirely succeed in this, for culture will conquer provincial inferiority complexes and survey the peculiar possessions of various localities with an awareness of the good that is to be found in them. It is a mark of a cultured man that he selects and takes pride in the things which mark and localize him.

This means that the American college will have thought through to a satisfactory conclusion what American values are. Such a college will have teachers of English who do not apologize for American literature, whose courses in contemporary literature are not entirely filled with European writings. Its courses in fine arts will have discovered an American architecture; its faculty will be in touch with living creators of cities, of communities. It will search for the drama which is distinctly national. It will teach American history in such a way that educated men and women will discover the dramatic situations and personalities of our American development, and see that this American life of ours is as vital for all humanity as was the Periclean age of Greece. Its music department will not stop with teaching the greatness of Bach who gathered a folk music into symphonic and choral form, but will encourage the love of American songs and dances, as part of the building of American symphonies and operas. Its philosophy courses will not alone familiarize students with the great thinkers of the world, but will teach a philosophy which is born out of the problems of American life and which grapples with those problems. Its religion will reflect a gospel of our swift and somewhat tragic transition from a feudal economy to a modern American industrialism. Its English will be culturally in the very best sense an American language.

This is not the place to enlarge upon the elements of American life which will stamp graduates of our colleges with American culture. I may suggest a few elements but shall leave them without further development.

I would place among these values the fact of our national youth and better yet, our youthfulness. The culture of a young American will perhaps be adolescent. It may take five hundred years for us to emerge into the era of intellectual and social

stability which marks a mature civilization. In the meantime we shall be swept with adolescent moods, will pass through periods of bitter self-questioning and will confront our problems with a youthful optimism which is possible only when a youthful organism is just too vital to submit to the inescapable wounds of its own social mistakes. It is a gigantic educational error if college graduates in America should finish college stamped with social or spiritual cynicism, or should fail to catch the vision of a golden age which is always just ahead.

Another American value would be our Puritan tendency at social reform. We have had altogether too much unintelligent belaboring of the Puritan on the part of our American colleges. We must admit the fact that the American people are still simple enough, praise God, to believe in moral idealism. The struggles to eliminate political slavery, and to fight to end war were genuinely American. While it may be the mark of our social immaturity, it is also the mark of our soundness of heart that we must be intrigued by moral ideals before we are willing to engage in war. When the great American history is written it shall have to devote a large portion of its space to the movements of social and political reform which from the beginning of our history have swept over the American people.

Other American elements are our élan, our enthusiasm, our good humor, our kindly personal interest which Europeans misinterpret as sheer curiosity, our joy in bigness. You cannot expect a people which have swept over prairie, desert and vast mountain regions in two generations, to treat of life in anything but gigantic terms. The true American culture will not try to express American life on a scale employed by an insular folk whom a day's journey from home brought to a dividing sea.

This American culture will be no obscurantist enlargement of a provincial braggartism. It will express a national self-confidence which is at the opposite pole from insular provincialism. It will be at the basis of world-mindedness. For the educated men and women who are to express America to itself must be intellectually mature enough to touch America's common, genuine activities, interests and ideas and give them a world perspective. No one can do this who is not himself an American, who believes in America and who loves her.

In the second place, the culture of the American college will be a democratic culture.

Few of us have thought through the difficult problem of the race's cultural achievements as these are related to or express various social orders. In our efforts to master universal categories of excellence we have often fallen into the error of ignoring the great fact that the actual artistic, literary and scientific creations of men are themselves cultural expressions. As such they are related to time and place and must be so considered and judged. We are apt to teach as desirable for American youth cultural aspirations which are the products of slavery, products of feudal serfdom, products of a parasitic court following. I enjoy "The Messiah" by Handel, but when I think of Handel ignobly pursuing the royal barge up the Thames with music written to win recognition from George III I feel ashamed. Music may be a universal language, and yet I cannot look hopefully to a continued admiration of European opera which builds its songs out of the race's inveterate lust, and adorns with beauty moral ideals as to the relations of the sexes which the American people would, if they understood the words, indigantly reject. I enjoy the Pyramids but if I shall ever see them I shall see the one hundred thousand slaves toiling under the lash to build a tomb for a royal family. I am appalled by the barbaric splendor of Russian churches but I shall never see them without recalling how their jewelled walls were erected on the broken bodies of men. The arts which flowered in a riotous prodigality of sculptured detail because the workmen received only starvation wages are not adequate to express an American culture. If we are properly to teach the enduring values which the past's achievements have left for us in the realm of man's creative gifts, we shall have to teach with them the terrible social tragedies which attended their creation. We shall venerate these gifts and use them but we shall not be contained in them. We shall not successfully mediate an American culture in American colleges unless the spirit of our colleges is democratic.

As a democratic people America is gifted with good humor, with insight into our human weaknesses, with a poignant sympathy with the poor and the weak of the earth. Colleges in America should always be places where the oppressed of the

world and of America are championed. The rapid industrialization in America, with the attendant massing of wealth in the hands of a few, must be clearly understood—there is no adequate teaching of American history which does not face this fact and endeavor to understand its menace to genuine Americanism. A great danger at this point lies in the fact that endowed colleges are compelled to seek for funds at the hands of wealthy people. The fine Americanism of many of our wealthy men is one of our greatest safeguards, yet the fact remains that colleges must be strong enough to emerge from the period of beggary and pauperism which belies our gestures of rugged American independence. It should come to pass in the golden age that college campuses produce the social dreamers, the youths who will build social orders which enhance the importance and the power of common men.

Because our culture is democratic we shall take pride in our understanding of ordinary people. We shall produce a literature which accurately interprets the richness of our American home life. We shall blend into a rich tapestry the varied racial cultures which have been gathered from all over the world. It will be a disgrace for such cultured men and women to be called highbrow; they will be taught to speak a simple language; they will learn how to live in simple communities, to live close to the soil, and everywhere to see the importance of standing close to the voiceless toilers in mill and on the farm. Not by intellectual apartness but by the gifts of intellectual understanding will the culture of our colleges be measured.

And finally, this American culture will be modern. It will possess an awareness of modern life. Such awareness will not close our eyes to the evils in modern life but it will not because of these evils shun modernity. One of the great losses in modernity is that it has enlarged the machine. This fact has deprived us of creative opportunities. But the cultured man of the colleges of tomorrow will not be afraid of the machine. While craftsmanship is gone, so that the material products of the future will be untouched by human hands, the cultured man will see in this fact not so much the submergence of individuality but its emancipation. A few artists may still cling to oil lamps and get their drinking water from a spring. A few families may

still endeavor to carry on domestic crafts in the family circle. My feeling is that these people will get tired of their job. Modern teachers may still bemoan the passing of handiwork, but they use the radio, even listening in to the common things; Amos 'n' Andy are not unknown words among college faculties. No people use the automobile more than do college professors. And we shall see that behind this development of the machine and the organization of industry is a dramatic tale of human personality. We shall see that in the future the great adventure lies in the field of human relations. Modern employers will be men who regard it as an industrial triumph if they can achieve industrial stability. No one can engage in the industry of the future who is not a social expert, who does not understand how men can be taught to live happily together; his problems will have to do with sanitary engineering, with recreational outlets. His success is to be measured not so much by his ability to get people to work but how to provide release for leisure, for the machine world in the golden age will be an age of escape, of personal freedom richer than anything which the world has seen. The time is soon coming when the cultured man will be marked by familiarity with and an understanding of the machine, when science will be no magic formula of disillusionment but the humble servant of human happiness.

The great blessing of modernity lies in this fact of leisure. It will be easier for the ordinary man to do what he would like to do than ever before. He may be required to spend a part of his time at routine tasks but I doubt whether he will have to devote much more of his time doing the chores than we did when our babies came, or when there was such an institution as monthly bills or the family furnace. But leisure will be at once the opportunity for and the test of culture. The cultured man of this coming day will be a man with splendid avocations. We shall not be afraid of riding pet hobbies, and creative passion will have its full sweep in our lives.

The modern man in our colleges will be efficient in the knowledge of modern movements. He will be aware of the fact that, following the great war, there have occurred political and economic changes. He will have mastered the difficult task of recognizing the fact that social orders are themselves organisms,

and as such are subject to the successive periods of birth, growth and decay. He will be able to keep in his mind essential social processes and will thus be able to guide his generation through the shifting scenes of contemporary history. He will not be afraid to look new social experimentation in the face; he will understand that only by wise selection of new ideas can existing orders maintain themselves. The American of the immediate future will be socially wise and his reliance upon a genuinely American order of life will be strengthened by that wisdom.

A modern culture will characterize the graduates of our colleges today in the realm of religious faith. The dramatic reality of man's moral dilemmas, the vivid portrayal of his spiritual energies as themselves significant revelations of a cosmic force which continually creates the world, the mastery of knowledge in a universe which is less mechanical than it was, the adequacy of Jesus' religious faith in a fatherly world Spirit and of his spirit of good will—these things will result in a culture of faith in the lives of modern young men and women, strong enough to command their cheerful commitments to its implications. The culture of the college in a modern world will be such that wise religious bodies will be slow to ask for a surrender of reason trained in the task of modern inquiry, and will find modern youth gladly enlisting in the faith which Christianity imposes. The religion of this modern culture will discover God not so much at the beginning of idealism but as one of the crowning glories of adventure in the service of men.

These things will characterize the cultural achievements of our colleges of the future in America. Genuinely American in our thought life, democratic and modern, our college graduates will splendidly add their contribution to the American civilization of the future. And by doing this these graduates of our colleges will be doing the thing most essential to an adequate participation by America in the larger life of the modern world.

THE COLLEGE AND LEISURE

WILLIAM MATHER LEWIS

PRESIDENT OF LAFAYETTE COLLEGE

A RECENT criticism of American college education centered in the assertion that it is not possible to distinguish college graduates from those who have not had the college experience. The conversation, the manners, the general attitude toward life, of the two groups, appeared to the writer to be exactly the same. If this indictment is true, and in many instances we are compelled to admit its fairness, it should give pause to those who are engaged in the direction of college education. However vague we may sometimes be as to the exact place of the independent liberal arts college in the scheme of American education, it is clear that it is our duty and privilege to develop gentlemen and gentlewomen; to turn out into the communities of the land, large and small, those who will aid in raising the taste of the people from its present deplorable level of mediocrity and point the way to the abundant life. The influence which the thousands of graduates who go out from our colleges each June might have upon the aesthetic life of the nation is inestimable. The fact of the poverty in the aesthetic life of the nation is evidence enough that something is lacking in the training of the American undergraduate student. This lack, if not supplied, is bound to become more detrimental as time advances because with a constantly contracting working day and working week, and with an increasing average wage, the problem of the employment of leisure time assumes a significance which it has never had before. In its leisure time activities the nation will find its power or its weakness. There are classic examples of nations which yielded to the soft amusements of luxury and thus started upon a downward course. With the individual it is not too much to say that only that one is educated who has within himself resources by means of which he fills his leisure time with activities which are stimulating and ennobling; and that the individual who must pay someone else to amuse him during his leisure hours or be unutterably bored is an unedu-

cated person regardless of the number of years of his formal educational experience.

Let us put the matter of the aesthetic and the cultural equipment of American college students and graduates to a specific test. First, as to the element of manners; President Hyde of Bowdoin College, in his splendid definition of the ideals of college education, sets as one element the opportunity "to learn manners from students who are gentlemen and gentlewomen." He might have said, "to learn manners from presidents and professors who are gentlemen and gentlewomen," for among these leaders we do not always find inherent courtesy and poise and dignity of bearing. President Eliot stands out in the memory of those who had the privilege of knowing him, not only as a great leader in intellectual matters but as a great gentleman. There are Boards of Trustees who in seeking a president for their institution have learned to meet the candidates at dinner. And there are college presidents who find it most desirable to adopt a similar course when choosing faculty members. It is depressing, when any one pursues this policy, to observe the ignorance of social conventions and the lack of social graces among a group which sets the standards of countless immature students.

Again, a leisure time element of the highest value and one which we find with less frequency as the days go by, is the capacity and desire for high-minded conversation. Many college graduates find their only resources for an evening of entertainment at the bridge table or the moving picture performance. Here again their poverty may not infrequently be traced back to leadership which they had in college. If one turns his mind to the conversation of an administrative or faculty group, he will realize how much of it is petty and deals with personalities; how much of it is shop talk and how little deals with great issues and with the finer things of life.

Certainly the critic is right in the statement that in the language of the college graduate there is little to distinguish him from the one without a college experience. The use of thoroughbred English upon the campus of the American college is all too rare. Administrative officers and faculty members adopt the easy vernacular of the day. No attention is given in

courses other than those in English to the proper use of the mother tongue in classroom discussion and written test, and this despite the fact that we are facing a period in which the spoken word is to have more influence than ever in history. This situation is keenly realized in England where a great movement for the improvement of the use of the mother tongue is receiving nation wide attention. The universal influence of the radio and of the talking moving picture should give us some suggestion as to future needs; should give us some interest in sending out from our college halls young people whose language marks them as gentlemen and gentlewomen.

The matter of the overemphasis of athletics in college is just now coming on for a great deal of discussion. It seems to me, however, that it is not so much a matter of overemphasis as of misplaced emphasis. We have mistaken ideas as to what are the major and minor sports. Now, it is obvious that the college experience is not an end in itself, but a means to an end, and that end is an effective and truly happy life. Carrying this conception into athletics we discover that football is of minor significance because not one out of several hundred players will ever participate in this game after college days are over. Football has many features to commend it and has its rightful place, but after all, from the educational standpoint we must classify it as a minor sport. On the other hand, golf, tennis, swimming, handball, squash and other games are of major importance in the student's life program, because if he learns in college how to enjoy these recreations, if he masters their technique, he will have a permanent asset. No individual leisure time program is complete which leaves out of consideration the matter of participation in games. One reason England has muddled through her difficulties so successfully for centuries is that her people devote many of their leisure hours to athletic participation.

The college of liberal arts should give constantly keener attention to the education of environment. The taste of the country in the matter of architecture must be greatly influenced by the ideals of those who are looked up to as educated men and women. There are many college campuses throughout the land whose buildings and whose landscaping do not raise the standard of taste very high. We can not eliminate many of the architectural

monstrosities but we can learn to cover the architect's mistakes with ivy; to use planting that will have in it much of beauty. We do not need to subject our students in college chapels to the unpleasant experience of looking upon glass which is atrocious in color effects and in design. It has long been an assumption that there is more educational value in putting money into endowment for teaching than into buildings but one may question whether or not a single beautiful building on the campus does not have as much educational value as does any professor. To conceal the unloveliness and the outright ugliness of college buildings and to rear upon the campus those of beauty, means much in the educational program of the undergraduate and in raising standards in the community which surrounds the college.

Again in passing through our college halls, one finds so infrequently either fine original paintings and pieces of sculpture or faithful reproductions of masterpieces. When there is an absence of these, the claim of the college as to the cultural advantages received by its students, seems to be somewhat far-fetched. It is no difficult thing today to provide for loan exhibits of paintings and etchings. Those of us who have paid considerable attention to this feature have found a response from the students which is well-nigh amazing. Those institutions which have brought upon the campus great painters to place upon the canvas some beautiful campus scene, have seen the growing interest of the students in the work as the days went by.

Likewise, the duty of the college in stimulating an appreciation of good music is too often neglected. We speak of our youth as being jazz mad but the fact is that they naturally accept the type of music which is given them. They did not create jazz,—their elders brought it to them. We have found at Lafayette that when we present to the student body a great musician such as Marcel Dupre, the brilliant French organist who came to us last year, that the students are spell-bound. We find that when we abandon the silly jingles and doggerel that marked the performances of the glee clubs of an earlier day, and, under competent direction, train the students in the work of Bach and Mendelssohn and other masters, the influence permeates not only those in the musical organization but every-

one in the college and gives them another leisure time asset of abiding value.

Likewise when those who are in charge of the work of the drama see to it that instead of students spending their time on those cheap plays written for amateur production, they take up the great works which are distinguishing the forward movement in the drama of Europe and America, there again the campus responds with constantly better taste. It seems clear that a new day is bound to dawn in our dramatic life if out of the Little Theatre movement of the college there comes a leadership in the community which will demonstrate that beauty and entertainment are not mutually repellent things.

Finally, education for leisure and for the abundant life should take due cognizance of the value of periods of quiet and of meditation. The college has yielded far too much to the clamor and over-organization of the market place. We have encouraged this upon the old theory that Satan finds something still for idle hands to do. If it is true that education consists in teaching students how to think rather than what to think, our colleges must provide more periods of inactivity than has been the case; more periods when students are not talked at; when their minds may in some way assimilate all that has been poured into them. At Lafayette College last fall, we eliminated our Saturday chapel and in its place installed what we call "The Even Song." On Wednesday afternoon at 5:30 the chapel doors are open. Our talented organist gives for one-half hour a program of sacred music on the great organ. Students may come and go as they like. The body of the chapel is in darkness and only a few candles glimmer in the chancel. From a handful of students coming the first Wednesday afternoon, the attendance has grown, and now one entering the room sees here and there all through the chapel, men listening quietly to the music, relaxing away from the clamor of the campus, giving a little thought perhaps to spiritual things. For in this hour we do feel that there is much which inspires spiritual awareness. The problem of the spiritual life of any college today is a great one. All the time that is spent in enriching and beautifying the religious services; in increasing the dignity and impressiveness of the place of worship; in eliminating from the service all that is

perfunctory and harsh and bare; in enabling students to behold the beauty of the Lord and to inquire in His temple,—these things are contributions to positive faith as much as any other element in the program.

The things which I have discussed may be called by some the by-products of college education, the side-shows, the non-essentials, but to me they are the very essence of education in the liberal arts college. I repeat that whatever vagueness there may be in our definition of the place of the liberal arts college, it still is clear that this is the unit in our educational system best fitted to produce gentlemen and gentlewomen, and gentlemen and gentlewomen with fine taste and with resources within themselves which make for the life abundant are needed in America today as never before.

HAVERFORD IDEAS

WE have quite definite ideas concerning the future development of higher education in America, and with this development we wish to associate ourselves. They are as follows:

More care must be taken in the selection of human material for such a delicate, important and expensive process as higher education.

More thought must be given to the individual requirements of those who are once admitted and who prove themselves worthy. They must be exposed to the inspired teaching and example of strong men who are lovers of youth and dedicated to their profession.

Physical education must be reclaimed as part of the general educational plan, and college sport, far from being a mercantile excrecence, must be restored to Faculty control.

And finally, greater insistence must be laid upon the inculcation of spiritual values. Our education is seeking its satisfaction too exclusively in material triumphs, in clever techniques and skills rather than in those spiritual and moral values which though not seen in the outward, are the eternal foundations of personal happiness and national righteousness and survival.—*W. W. Comfort.*

THE NEWER EDUCATION

ROBERT WITHINGTON

PROFESSOR OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE, SMITH COLLEGE

Teaching in a university is not a process where teacher proclaims a revealed message and student accepts it on faith. It is rather a process in which truth is elicited and discovered than one by which it is imparted. Its language is not "thus saith the Lord" nor "thus saith eternal reason." It is not a clothing of the mind with waterproof dogma. It is rather a setting free of the mind, a leading of it by demonstration and encouragement to find, than a coercing of it into a prescribed way of faith.—ROSCOE POUND: *The University and Civilization*.

THE greatest problem before the teaching profession today is that of teaching students "how to think." When one observes the products of the colleges in the adult life of our country, one must confess that the results of our educational methods are not above criticism; but this is perhaps due to the older attitude of teachers who were not primarily concerned with teaching "how to think"—who sought rather to teach "what to think." As a result, we have a body of citizens who seek to impress their ideas on the community, and to suppress all who do not hold their particular point of view. Most Americans feel today that there are correct opinions, and wrong opinions—and that the latter are held by those who disagree with them. We have been given "revealed messages" which we accept on faith—not only from our teachers, but from our political leaders, our business associates, our patriotic societies, our propagandists of all sorts, and we dare not question them. We have been easily led, we accept statements as facts without examining them for ourselves, and these are the fruits of an education which deals with "waterproof dogma."

There are, however, signs of a change. This is perhaps due to the spirit of the age, but chiefly—I dare hope—to the fact that teachers themselves see whither the older methods of teaching have led us. We no longer seek implicit faith from our students. We urge them to examine, to question; we are getting back to the Americanism which the Professor so sturdily maintained at the Bostonian breakfast-table. It was Holmes who wrote: "To think of trying to water-proof the American mind against the questions that Heaven rains down upon it shows a misapprehension of our new conditions. If to question every-

thing be unlawful and dangerous, we had better undeclare our independence at once; for what the Declaration means is the right to question everything, even the truth of its own fundamental proposition."

But we do not seek to do away with faith. We may unsettle our students for a while as we seek a firmer foundation for their faith than the dicta of pedagogues; it will do them no lasting harm. If a real thought knocks the wind out of somebody or other, as Holmes has said, it does not follow that every thought which knocks the wind out of somebody is a real one; if to startle is to instruct, it may also be to misinform. Our object is to teach our students to differentiate—to distinguish between the false and the true—and this can only be done by an examination of both. I fancy I can see an increase on the part of the students of a willingness to examine things for themselves—to question opinions and verify facts; and most teachers welcome this sign of independence.

II

The Socratic method of instruction has long been a model, and many great teachers of our age have adapted it to seminars and small classes. Even in larger groups, it has been possible for a lecturer to give both sides of a discussed question, enabling his auditors to make up their minds which side to support. The day is going by when students seek the teacher's personal point of view with the object of repeating it on the examination in order to get a good mark. Grades are, unfortunately, an important part of the pedagogical paraphernalia; but they may be administered with discretion—and more and more teachers give the reward of a good grade to the students who show that they have done some thinking for themselves. Parrots and phonographs are falling out of academic favor; recognizing that opinions are but milestones on the road of growth, we aim now to find out what our students think and why they hold their opinions. It is not enough to know that they think as they do because they have been told to.

There is a growing sense of the relative unimportance of facts—that is, as far as examinations are concerned. We are more and more coming to realize that facts are of importance only as tools—they are means to an end, not an end in themselves. Interpretation of facts is more important—we want to know

what students will do with the facts when they have them. The student who commits dates to memory with meticulous care, and then writes: "Chaucer (1340-1400) was profoundly influenced by Spenser (1552-1599)" neither deserves nor obtains a good grade.

Opinions are based on facts, it is true, and as tools facts are important. There is no possibility of argument about established facts—but the mere collection of facts is no longer considered a proof of education. More and more is the distinction between knowledge and wisdom recognized as vital; wisdom has been defined as "applied knowledge"—and while it frequently comes with age and experience, the possibility of teaching students to apply their knowledge, even while they are adding to it, is being admitted. With their evidence before them, students can analyze and interpret; even when they are addressed by supporters of one point of view or another, they can learn to recognize propaganda, to weigh arguments pro and con, to make up their minds for themselves.

The chief danger of propaganda—when presented to students as well as to a larger public—is, of course, that all the facts are not given. Students should be encouraged to investigate for themselves, that they may not be misled by a prejudiced argument. No educated public should be deceived by a misinterpretation of facts; no trained thinker can be hoodwinked by the various forms of fallacious reasoning; all students should be willing to hear both sides of an argument before deciding which side (if either) to accept. Habits of questioning and open-mindedness can be formed; and tolerance does not necessarily mean loss of ideals or unwillingness to support one side or another. Often there is much to be said on both sides; rarely is there as much to be said on one side as on the other. Any decision involves the careful examination of a question from all points of view; and the scholar who is trained in the weighing of evidence is not debarred from coming to a decision.

In small groups, discussion is the best method of causing students to think. This is not always possible in larger classes, and teachers are often obliged to summarize the opposing views—not always an easy thing to do fairly. Occasionally it is possible to invite supporters of both sides to address a class: the disadvantage here is, of course, that one propagandist is likely

to follow another, and neither be quite fair to the question in dispute. The teacher can (and should) separate the wheat from the chaff—the important from the unimportant issues—but he should not dictate opinions in the process. Too many undergraduates are anxious that he should, and the temptation to give his own views is great; but the best teacher is he who resists this temptation, and contents himself with giving his class the material for making up their minds.

III

We find here the greatest difference between school and college. In school, the children are more concerned with facts; we do not expect them to reason so much—though there is no objection to their exercising their judgment on occasion. The accumulation of facts continues in college—and perchance through life—but it ceases to be the main object of intellectual activity. We recall the story of the man who knew everything—and that was all he did know. We do not care to be like him; we learn to value facts in their true light, and to use them—not merely to collect them. The gazing rustics of sweet Auburn ranged round the village master amazed—

And still they gazed, and still the wonder grew
That one small head could carry all he knew,

but the parson owned the schoolmaster's skill in argument, not surprised at his words of "learned length and thunderous sound." Holmes speaks condescendingly of the "Note and Query tribe"—satirizes the "*captatores verborum*, those useful but humble scavengers of the language," and the "*scarabaeus criticus*"—as becomes one who always believed in life rather than in books. Perhaps the teacher who shows the connection between the two does more to make his students think than any one else.

One of the chief weaknesses of our system is the fact that he who gives a course judges the examination, rates his students, and leaves them without an appeal from his decision. In an age which is concerned with "getting by" (how much of this attitude is due to the schooling which it has had?), the temptation to study the personal idiosyncracies of a teacher is ever-present; the students try to give him what they think will please, and repeat (more or less accurately) what they have

understood him to say. Some undergraduates will tell you that if they do not do this, they face failure. I think they often misjudge the instructor, and are marked down rather for having done less than the required work, or for not showing how they came to their conclusions, than for expressing their opinions. But if a committee, or even another colleague, graded the papers, this criticism would not hold; the student would have to defend his position, and this would help him to think. Too often, as things are, our examination-papers deal with minor details, minute facts, the opinions of critics, the experimentation of others—too often, in short, they are memory tests, not tests of judgment; and when they are graded by the lecturer himself, or his assistant, there is little inducement for the student to show wisdom rather than knowledge. Our various "honors systems" are, to a certain extent, correcting these defects—but only for a picked group. When the practice becomes general, and (as already in some places) is applied to the undergraduate body as a whole, a great gain should result.

One wonders sometimes if the majority of students *want* to think for themselves. One wonders if the adult population of our land is interested in thinking. It is hard to make people think when they don't want to; it is much easier to provide them with ready-made opinions—which they are only too glad to have—and this accounts for the power and prestige of the propagandist among us. Once the student has been graduated, there is little incentive for him to use his mind; it is much easier to follow the crowd—especially in matters outside his daily concerns. He "lets George do it"—he refers problems of government to the politicians (rather flattered that they want his vote); of philosophy to his rector, and of hygiene to his physician; of education to his children's teachers; of his home, to his wife, and even of his travels to a tourist agency. He accepts the critics' dicta in matters connected with art, music, and literature; he often accepts his broker's advice about investments; he has little time or energy for anything outside his business. Perhaps these habits were begun in the college of twenty or thirty years ago; but Dean Pound's ideal, when or if realized, should do much to change things—and educators are beginning to see that coercing the mind into a prescribed way of faith is not true education.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE TEACHER AND OF TEACHING

PAUL E. TITSWORTH

PRESIDENT OF WASHINGTON COLLEGE, CHESTERTOWN, MD.

THE college teacher, in common with other school teachers in America, has frequently been looked upon as an unimaginative, futile being, given over to theories and a pointless, scholastic rigamarole. This attitude is evidently a hold-over from colonial America when teachers were slaves, indentured servants, or weaklings, unsuited to manly callings. Undoubtedly this picture of teachers Washington Irving had in mind when he drew the portrait of Ichabod Crane in the *Legend of Sleepy Hollow*.

This stigma of their early history teachers find difficulty in throwing off. It persists apparently in the notion, amazingly wide-spread today, that the teacher occupies an inferior social position, that he is by nature a loafer who enjoys a "soft-snap job," or is a person of impractical brilliance who does not, because of his humble station in society and the inferior function he fulfills, belong in the same class with men and women of significance. *Miserabile dictu*, the teacher has frequently deserved the inferior place accorded him.

This popular idea is of the same stuff as another notion, loosely held both within and without academic precincts, that teachers are after all rather negligible factors in a college community and that students who come to college somehow get educated—if they do get educated—by the intervention of a kindly educational providence, to which result the teachers make but casual contribution.

Surveys undertaken among recent alumni of well-known colleges seem to bear out this attitude of cynicism regarding the value of the teacher in the scheme of education. Asked what element of most significance their colleges gave them, the majority of repliers to the survey questionnaires rank college friendship first, with the work and personality of their teachers as a poor "also-ran." There were happily in the case of most insti-

tutions, however, outstanding teachers whose service did call forth favorable alumni comment.

Some of this contempt of teaching is possibly ascribable to an easy cynicism of the present "younger generation" and their tendency to more vocal criticism of the *status quo* than their predecessors in college, who were more inclined to take matters as they came, without comment. The present college generation, however, requires a higher quality of instructional personnel and performance than its collegiate forbears expected. But a considerable portion of the disesteem of teaching as a profession may be ascribable to the mediocrity of too much instruction itself. It sometimes appears that popular opinion favors the idea that men and women, unsuited to more significant work, can either preach or teach. Many such have found their way into these professions. And society inclines to pay all preachers and teachers accordingly.

The high tide in the contempt of teaching appears latterly to be on the point of receding and a new appreciation of the intellectual worker to be appearing above the horizon. Understanding observers and intelligent supporters of education are beginning to appreciate that the quality of instruction, and of the personality behind it, bears direct relation to the honesty, competence, energy, and richness of mind which college graduates take with them when they step off the commencement platform.

During the last five years particularly, students and administrators of college education have definitely awakened to the necessity of better teachers and teaching in college, have been analyzing the problem scientifically and are already proposing and applying appropriate remedies. The teacher's reorganized pension and insurance plans of the Carnegie Foundation and of many individual universities are a recognition of the need of instructional betterment in the American college. The discussion of the Association of American Colleges at two of its recent meetings (1928 and 1929), when nearly the entire program was given up to deliberations on better teachers and how to secure them, shows how keenly the college world senses the problem. Multiplying scientific studies of what constitutes effective teaching and qualifications of teachers supply additional evidence that the teacher constitutes today the major problem in putting edu-

education across. In education's yesterday, the main questions discussed were the means of raising endowment, securing new buildings, and the type of students to be accepted. Such problems, still bulking large, no longer occupy the spot light, however. The focus and intensity of attention the teacher now commands.

Dr. Adam Leroy Jones, Director of Admissions of Columbia University, after a study of 216 colleges, found that colleges were losing their popularity, if a notable decrease in registration were proof.* Another administrator, commenting perhaps somewhat biliously on the reported receding of the flood-tide of registration, ascribes the phenomenon to the "dilution of college training, particularly in the immediate post-war period by the colleges' setting up cheap scrub faculties who may have looked like teachers but never were, who were not paid enough to make them worth what they were paid. . . . It was a time of seeing how big a registration the colleges could roll up. It was a question of how many students could be got to college and not of what happened to them when they arrived there. And many colleges did not have 'the goods.'"

"In the long run," avers Director Jones, "solid improvement in college training will (again) increase the demand for such training."

That college will survive and function appropriately which renders a quality service. Criticism of colleges even among students is growing more voluminous and more enlightened. A competent observer states that "a growing proportion of our boys and girls are thinking. You will find that the average undergraduate now spends a larger part of his time in voluntary library work and studies than in the cabarets or the movies."

The center of this new intellectual interest is bound to be the teacher, but he will have to be a person whose scholastic attainments, instructional competence, and individuality command the respect not only of this new type of student but likewise of the public increasingly interested in and observantly critical of the college.

In this new age, therefore, colleges must be as willing to put money into persons—teachers who are the cutting edge of education—as into physical equipment. In this renaissance of college

* *The New York Times*, Oct. 2, 1929.

education, characterized not by bulging registrations and collegiate splurge so much as by sincere performance, when size must give way to excellence, education will more largely be as it really always has been, the contact between the seasoned mind of the instructor and the immature mind of the pupil, between the vibrant teacher and the receptive student.

The easy-going college of pre-war America, uncritical of traditional practices, inheriting unprepared the swollen enrolments of the post-war period and resorting perforce to the methods of mass production, is rapidly losing prestige under a new and critical scrutiny from without and within. But there is arising a new education, now conscious of its objectives, and scientifically adapting its procedures to the ends to be achieved.

All this leads naturally to the query, How is this contact between student and teacher best to be brought about? In other words, exactly what is teaching?

The college instructor now-a-days must have at least seven years of training subsequent to high school before he can even be supposed to have mastered his subject. In the small college he will be expected to teach, on the average, say, 150 pupils and five different classes meeting three times a week each. If he is professor of English, for example, he has a field of 1800 years to cover. He is faced, therefore, with the necessity of knowing intimately the literature of these eighteen centuries and also of being acquainted with the main works written about this literature, which form a good-sized library themselves. Likewise he must keep up respectably with contemporary writing—a job in itself. In brief, he is faced with a task he can never accomplish but must always be tackling. To maintain his professional competence, he must be a tireless student to the end of his days.

And this he must do to keep his own contacts fresh and his enthusiasm strong for his subject matter. For sustained periods of study he must have freedom from interruptions and time and opportunity for mental digestion, for meditation. This is ultimately the thing he is getting paid for—the soundness of his thought, the maturity of his judgment, and the ripeness of his personality. These things can rarely be forced; they require time; not often can they come out of the hurly-burly and routine of class days.

Before he faces a class he must diligently refresh his memory on the material immediately under consideration and, what frequently takes more time, he must organize the day's subject matter and contrive the best method of putting it across, being careful to plan to leave his class with definite and lasting impressions of the subject. But more, he must so arrange his work as to challenge—not the memory which is the least important of all the student's powers—but the student's self-activity, check up the latter's superficial and fallacious thinking, stir his enthusiasm for ideas and ideals, and give youth the sense of definite accomplishment. Success in achieving these results requires painstaking and creative preparation before each class. This is his most important and time-consuming immediate task, of which holding recitation is the final and, from the point of view of time, the least phase.

In class, he must meet the challenge of the brightest students, stir the sluggards, keep the group thinking, each up to his highest capacity, discover the habitual temperamental faults and mental insufficiencies of his students, know how to drop the right word to stimulate the individual student to his best effort, and to exhibit his field and his subject as one of the delectable continents of the universe of learning.

Outside of class, he must make contact with his students, all 150 of them if possible. He must flagellate, encourage, challenge. Ideally, he should find or make occasions for getting his students to his own home, there in an informal atmosphere let his personality do its perfect work.

Finished with the students personally, in class and outside, the teacher must read and grade the written work of his proteges, their reports, quiz and examination papers, note books, term papers and the like. Such critical check-up on the written work of 150 students is a sizeable job in itself.

All such several activities constitute the teacher's job. True teaching is hard work. It demands of him all that he knows, is, and can become. This is not a pattern of perfection but a job analysis of the teacher. His task is never done.

FINANCIAL AND FIDUCIARY MATTERS

ALFRED WILLIAMS ANTHONY

CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMISSION ON PERMANENT AND TRUST FUNDS

CONFERENCE ON FINANCIAL AND FIDUCIARY MATTERS, 1931

THE Conference on Financial and Fiduciary Matters held at Atlantic City, N. J., March 17-19, assembled a representative group of treasurers, administrators and financial secretaries of the charities of the country. The persons present embodied a good cross-section of welfare and benevolent work. They were representative of religious organizations of almost every denomination, home missions, foreign missions, boards of education, pensions, hospitals and homes. The colleges, universities and educational organizations; social work groups, foundations, Bible societies, the Red Cross, and associations for information, research, statistics and investments, were represented, and also the Y. M. C. A., the Y. W. C. A., humane societies, community chests, actuaries, lawyers, trust companies and promotional agencies.

The general subject was "The Long-Range Economic Policy of Philanthropy" which called for the recognition of reasons for the existence of certain charities and the underlying philosophy of their set-up, objectives and public service. Naturally, the questions of technique and method and detail in solicitation and administration of funds were brought into review.

The President of the Conference, Dr. Lewis B. Franklin, now Vice-President and Treasurer of the National Council of the Protestant Episcopal Church, formerly a Vice-President of the Guaranty Trust Company, stressed in his introductory remarks the necessity of integrity and honesty in the administration of funds and the safeguarding of treasurers and custodians, so that they might not be subjected to too great temptations in the discharge of their duties.

Mr. Mark M. Jones, Consulting Economist, challenged the necessity of many of the religious and educational movements which have come from the past unless they be modified and adapted to new and changing conditions. He insisted upon the necessity of a periodic examination of the objectives, the solidity and the methods of organizations.

Dr. Ernest F. Hall, Chairman of the Sub-Committee on Annuities, set forth in an impartial way, the pros and cons for the use of annuity agreements as compared with other methods and types of giving. He pointed out the fact that new legislation, in the different states and by the Federal Government, was constantly making the acceptance and administration of annuity agreements more complicated and more difficult.

Mr. Pierce Williams, of the National Bureau of Economic Research, traced the history of promotional agencies, the corporations which are frequently employed in campaigns for large sums of money, and, having analyzed their contracts and methods, pointed out values which justified their service.

The question "How Far Can Cooperation Go in Seeking Permanent Funds?" was considered by three speakers. Dr. A. W. Anthony, Chairman of the Committee on Financial and Fiduciary Matters, stated that while the trend of human relations is constantly toward a larger grouping, any cooperative action, due chiefly to economic and social urges, has been toward centralization and combination, yet in the field of charity, since giving is necessarily an individual and personal matter, centralization is impossible unless likes and dislikes are harmonized as a condition to cooperative action. That is, cooperation between charities is a psychological rather than a mechanical problem. Experience in the Interchurch World Movement shows an unreadiness of the minds of men to act other than as they had been previously channeling their giving. Seven women's colleges of the country are complaining that even in the home, the purse of the man and the purse of the woman do not unite in supporting both the college for men and the college for women.

Mr. Leroy A. Mershon, formerly Director of the Trust Company Division of the American Bankers Association, showed in detail the method by which charities might expect to bring their causes to the favorable attention of bankers and trust company officials; and Mr. Raymond M. White, an attorney of New York City, described the readiness of lawyers to serve and guide charitable organizations with due regard to legal and equitable relationships.

The subject, "How May Charities be Appraised?" or their "Capacity for Periodic Self-Appraisal" was discussed on the side of general social work, both national and local, by Dr.

Francis H. McLean, Field Director of the Family Welfare Association of America, and on the educational side, by Dr. Robert L. Kelly, Executive Secretary of the Council of Church Boards of Education and Director of the Association of American Colleges. The former speaker believed that the danger of becoming institutionalized, or of getting into ruts, might be avoided by the more frequent change of the personnel of an organization, both in the board of management and in the staff of executives. He was of the opinion that after ten years of service an official, in either of these capacities, was in danger of becoming "stale" or of acting "repetitiously."

Dr. Kelly pointed out the fact that the colleges and the universities of the country, clearly discerning the necessity of setting up high standards and of conforming to them, were already combined, not simply as individuals but as organizations, in efforts to understand the field of education, to experiment in improvement and application of methods, and rigorously to bring each other up to the highest level of possible achievement.

A campaign for securing the writing of wills was proposed by Mr. Gerard T. Remsen, of the New York Bar, and in the discussion following it was stated that probably no other one thing would do more both for the sound economic condition of individuals and of their wise administration of properties for families and for charity, than to get men and women to write their wills and write them today, not putting it off, even with the expectation of writing a will every little while as financial or domestic conditions change.

The closing session of the Conference was devoted to the subject, "The Common Stocks in the Eleemosynary Institution's Portfolio." Mr. Laurence H. Sloan, one of the Vice-Presidents of Standard Statistics Company of New York, was the speaker. In pointing out the values of common stocks and the justification for holding them when acquired by inheritance, Mr. Sloan and the Conference had the opportunity of comparing, in prospects of enhancement, in security and volume of income, the different kinds of investments, mortgages, bonds, stocks, both preferred and common.

Certainly attendants at the Conference had their minds stirred. If any mental pools had become calm and placid, the

discussion of economic policies under present conditions stirred the waters.

Following a unanimous vote of the Conference, the papers presented will be published in a volume, as has been the case after all previous conferences of this nature.

CURRENT NOTES

ENDOWING : ENDURING

When a man leaves money to a college, it proves he is more interested in heads than in headstones. A bequest to a college is the nearest you can come to finding the Fountain of Youth. It can be **FOUNDED**,—but not **FOUND**!

THESE words introduce a pamphlet, entitled "Endowing Florida's Future," issued by six colleges in Florida—the University of Florida, Florida State College for Women, John B. Stetson University, University of Miami, Southern College and Rollins College.

WHO CONTROLS THE COLLEGE?

The leading article in *Social Science* for April, 1931, by Darell Boyd Harmon, "Some Trends in Financing Higher Education," shows, from an examination of data from the beginning of higher education in this country, that more and more philanthropy supports it and more and more controls it.

The motive at first in founding a college was religious; later it embodied the purpose of teaching for citizenship; then it added the purpose of increasing the graduate's earning power; not yet has it fully developed to the inclusion of culture, individual and social.

Present-day philanthropy has expressed itself during a seventeen year period by giving and bequeathing the following sums to education in colleges and universities:—

1910-12	\$28,185,999
1912-14	29,927,138
1914-16	34,845,551
1916-18	27,450,945
1918-20	65,286,159
1920-22	77,400,756
1925-26	72,374,608

Conclusions from this study are summarized as follows:—

1. Privately endowed institutions are dependent upon philanthropic sources for 42 per cent of their income for current educational purposes. These institutions are also dependent upon philanthropy for virtually all of their educational plants and property. Because of this condition, trends in philanthropy have a close relationship with the administration of our endowed institutions.

2. An examination of the history of American higher education shows that the tendency in giving is away from group giving and towards individual giving; that, from the institutional viewpoint, the securing of gifts is becoming a highly competitive affair, because of the many different types of endowed institutions in our educational scheme.

3. As a result of this highly competitive state in the securing of gifts, the individual donor is able to place certain demands upon the prospective recipient of his benefaction, and these demands must be met if the institution is to receive the funds it needs.

4. The large contributor is an essential factor in every fund-raising effort, contributing as he does from 43.5 per cent to 77.7 per cent of the total amount of the support received, and his support is absolutely necessary for the success of any fund-raising effort.

5. The large contributor is turning to the non-teaching foundation for leadership and guidance in his giving.

6. The educational foundations, as represented by the leaders in the field, are demanding that the colleges receiving their support meet certain educational standards and maintain adequate and sufficient systems of business and financial administration.

7. From the above it is reasonable to conclude that only those colleges will receive adequate support from foundations and their followers, the wealthy donors, which meet these educational standards and maintain adequate and efficient organizations for administering their business, financial and other non-educational affairs.

DIVERSIFIED INVESTMENTS

Judgment as to diversification of investments varies. It is of interest and service to see how ten well-known colleges vary their lists.

<i>Year</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>% Mortgages</i>	<i>% Bonds</i>	<i>% Stocks</i>	<i>% Real Estate</i>
1929	Harvard	12.85	64.49	22.66	
1929	Chicago	16.83	29.04	30.09	24.04
1929	Yale*	13.	39.	33.	12.
1929	Pennsylvania	10.	68.	21.	1.
1928	Princeton	7.	77.	9.	7.
1928	Oberlin	54.	16.	27.	3.
1928	Wellesley	1.	89.	10.	
1929	Vassar	8.	77.	15.	
1928	Amherst	5.20	90.10		4.7
1929	Williams	5.	69.	9.	17.

The above figures are furnished by a correspondent.

THE QUESTION OF WILLS

Under the Cornellian Council, Cornell University has a committee of its graduates, scattered throughout the country, headed up by a small committee in New York City, which makes it easy for graduates and supporters of the institution to write their wills and to make bequests to the university. At the conference on Financial and Fiduciary Matters, at Atlantic City, March 17-19, last, the statement was made by an officer of this movement:—

Cornell has received a number of bequests during the last five years, and we have assurance that a great many bequests have been written into wills with Cornell as the beneficiary during this period. In fact, we estimate conservatively that at least \$1,000,000 a year is written into wills for the benefit of Cornell. Only two years ago a Cornell alumnus of one of the earlier classes told me that he was planning to leave his entire estate of \$500,000 to Cornell, subject to a life interest in his wife; and just a few weeks ago another alumnus told me that he had just completed a new will, making Cornell the beneficiary of his entire estate, which will amount to considerably more than \$1,000,000. Many other similar situations involving bequests from \$1,000 to \$1,000,000 have been reported.

And this man adds a concluding statement: "We are confident that Cornell's major financial problems in the next twenty or thirty years will be solved largely through the gifts which will come to the university by bequest."

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THE SERVICES OF PROFESSIONAL PROMOTIONAL AGENCIES IN SECURING PERMANENT FUNDS *

PIERCE WILLIAMS

EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR OF THE NATIONAL BUREAU OF ECONOMIC
RESEARCH, INC., NEW YORK

TO make clear what is meant by the service of professional promotional agencies, let it be stated that the service consists of expert, professional organization and direction of a campaign to raise a fixed amount of money, in a certain period of time, in consideration of the payment to the campaign directing organization of a certain amount of money, in addition to the expenses of the campaign, usually indicated in advance by the campaign organization in agreement with the philanthropic institution. An important fact to remember is that the professional agency actually directs the campaign.

This is, it appears, a specially appropriate moment for trustees and executives of philanthropic institutions to face anew the various questions—ethical as well as economic—which should be considered by them before entering into a contract with any professional agency to direct a money-raising campaign in behalf of their institution.

There is evidence that the technique which professional agencies have until now put at the service of philanthropic institutions is undergoing transformation to meet new conditions. This modification in technical method is foreshadowed in an announcement by one of the leading firms, from which I quote in part as follows:

On December 31, 1930, the term "campaign" or "drive" will pass out of the vocabulary of this firm. In its place on January 1st will come the term "philanthropic financing" or "financing program."

Along with the old term will go the old campaign methods and creaking machinery. Along with the new term will come a new method, combining all the best experience of past and present. The financing program will go all the way through from the announcement of its need until the money is collected and in the bank.

For some time we have been conscious of the need for new terms and concepts, and for the past twelve months we have

* An address before the Conference on Financial and Fiduciary Matters, Atlantic City, N. J., March 18, 1931.

been experimenting with new methods. Now we are ready to adopt them as infinitely superior to the "campaign" tactics. The giving public has been growing more and more tired of the ballyhoo and mechanics of recent campaigns and they too have been wishing and hoping for relief.

Our new "financing program" will be less spectacular, more enduring; less noisy, more convincing; less mechanical, more vital; less superficial, more sincere; less of inflated subscriptions, more of money in hand. One rather general criticism of the old type of campaign is that it is a brief period of intensive enthusiasm, from which there is often a slump in interest and also, often a decided slump in the collections of subscriptions taken. Our new "financial program" will extend over a period of months, sometimes years. It will involve leadership in collecting the money as well as in obtaining the subscriptions. The whole program will be unified and we trust will result in a much larger percentage of money actually collected and in a more wholesome general reaction.

Until more information is available about this new type of professional service, it is impracticable to discuss it critically. Under the circumstances, what I shall have to say about the services of professional agencies may perhaps be valuable chiefly as a contribution to the history of philanthropic money raising in the United States. On the other hand, certain fundamental questions still call for examination and decision by trustees of philanthropic institutions who have under consideration the employment of outside professional assistance in their efforts to raise funds. It is to these larger questions of institutional policy that I desire to call attention.

More and more the philanthropic institutions of the United States are relying upon a specially organized, intensive effort, to bring in special contributions for endowment, for the erection of buildings, and for other "capital" purposes. The term campaign is appropriately applied to this type of financial effort. Almost always, the effort has a definite objective, usually referred to as the "goal" of the campaign. The actual solicitation of subscriptions is usually preceded by a carefully prepared "barrage" of publicity. The general movement is ordinarily carried out by an army of volunteers, headed by experienced and enthusiastic captains. The military analogy must not, of course, be carried too far. Certainly, the prospective contributor—the

object of the immediate effort of the individual volunteer—is not an enemy but a friend. For any financial campaign to succeed, it must envisage a great number of people—willing, if not eager, to surrender to the gallant volunteer, through the delivery of a subscription blank, properly filled out and signed.

THE PROFESSIONAL PROMOTIONAL AGENCY A RELATIVELY NEW
DEVELOPMENT IN AMERICA

The intensively organized campaign for funds for philanthropic purposes is itself not over twenty-five years old, and the professional agency offering its services for the organization and direction of such campaigns is even younger. In fact, the professional agencies have come into prominence during the past twelve years.

The National YMCA is undoubtedly the father of this remarkable plan.

The decade 1900 to 1910 was marked by nation-wide activity in YMCA building programs. The reason was not merely the obsolescence of YMCA buildings, but also the fact that the four-fold YMCA program could not be satisfactorily carried on in buildings of the old type, many of which were designed primarily for holding evangelical services, for providing reading rooms, etc.

Mr. Charles S. Ward and Mr. Lyman Pierce—both YMCA men—were the originators of the intensive campaign method. The plan was first put into operation about 1902 and was applied with increasing success in local YMCA building campaigns until the outbreak of the war. The essentials of the plan were as follows:

1. A definite goal for the campaign, both in amount and as to date on which the campaign should begin and terminate.
2. The quota system of apportioning the total amount to be raised over an approximate number of subscribers, classified as to the amount which each subscriber might reasonably be asked to give.
3. A careful preliminary preparation of prospect cards indicating how much each prospect was to be asked to give.
4. A corps of volunteer workers recruited from among the active and influential business men of the community.
5. Assignment to each volunteer worker of certain prospects whom it was his duty to canvass and secure pledges from.

6. Daily reports at some central meeting place in order that all the workers might know the progress of the campaign toward its goal.

7. Appropriate publicity.

The intensive campaign plan apparently remained the exclusive property of the YMCA until the United States entered the World War. When the first Red Cross campaign was undertaken in 1917, the YMCA technique was applied with a fair degree of efficiency in thousands of local communities all over the country. The same technique was applied with even greater effectiveness by the Red Cross in its May, 1918, campaign. It was likewise applied with remarkably successful results in the United War Work Campaign of November, 1918.

The War Chests, which came into existence in many American cities during 1918, appropriated this intensive campaign technique. The Community Chests succeeded the War Chests and likewise appropriated the YMCA technique.

Soon after the war, other types of institutions realized that they too could get larger funds through the same methods. The hospitals were next to take up the plan; then a college here and there; later churches, and today practically all types of philanthropic organizations employ the intensive campaign plan of raising funds. Since the war, as the use of the campaign method has become more universal, a new profession has grown up—that of the campaign director, who applies the technique of organization and education.

The records submitted by leading professional agencies show that several hundred million dollars have been raised for philanthropic work since the war under their supervision and with their aid. That trustees of leading educational institutions believed the services of a professional agency necessary to them in their efforts to raise permanent funds may be assumed from the imposing list of names of past clients submitted by three or four of the most prominent of the professional agencies. Among secular charitable organizations generally, the employment of professional campaign directors to raise capital funds is quite common.

Denominational institutions have apparently not made proportionately the same use of professional organizations, probably

for the reason that the leading denominational national bodies have for years had special personnel for their finance efforts, and perhaps also because they have been partisans of the steady, persistent effort.

In preparing this report, a number of institutions which had employed professional direction for the raising of permanent funds were asked to indicate whether they felt satisfied with the service rendered. The replies, while relatively few, are in the affirmative. The following selected expressions of opinion will suffice:

A denominational organization:

We believe in professional campaigners when the object to be attained is important enough to justify the expense, which is involved in their services.

Messrs. X are among the best campaigners of the United States, so far as we know. Our experience with them is probably as satisfactory as it could be with any campaigners under the circumstances which we faced, although less than half of the million dollars needed had been raised at the time they withdrew from our field.

A mid-western college:—

Our college employed Messrs. X in its endowment campaign in 1925. We took the trail for \$600,000 and actually secured \$430,000 in pledges. Later on, independent of this professional firm, we reached our goal.

One of the YMCA national agencies:—

We made our contract with Messrs. Y when we were engaged in a strenuous campaign for \$2,500,000. We had been working on the campaign between two and three years and had already secured \$500,000. They continued with us for about three years' work. Our entire campaign cost approximately \$100,000, not including salaries of college officials. The campaign lasted between six and seven years. Of the amount spent \$89,424 went through the hands of the professional campaign directors. This covered the fees to the firm, the salaries of directors employed, printed matter, traveling expenses, luncheons, etc.

So far as I know none of our donors were acquainted with the fact that we received the help of a promotional firm.

The professional firm could not have raised the money without our services and it would have been very difficult, perhaps impossible, for us to have gotten along successfully without their help. Their survey of the field, their help in

organization, the work of the director giving his whole time for nearly three years to our work, and particularly the publicity pamphlets were most helpful. As you know we had to do the actual solicitation ourselves. The campaign firm did, however, help us in making contacts.

The cost of using publicity firms is for the time being much more than that of our own staff. I think just as in the case of employing an architect or a contractor for a building, the expense is justified if the campaign succeeds.

An Eastern theological college:—

It is quite a number of years now since we employed their services. We have not a copy of the contract at hand. The financial objective was approximately three-fifths realized.

Our donors and supporters were not favorably impressed and the use of the professional agency was felt by many of them to be neither dignified nor sound financially.

My own feeling, partly based upon this campaign and partly upon other observations, is that the less colleges have to do with professional money raising agents, the better. I say this not in any special criticism of the firm in question, who lived up to their contract and in general behaved themselves in an admirable manner.

An Eastern liberal arts college:—

Messrs. Z served us in our War Memorial Campaign to raise \$1,500,000. There was some difference of opinion among the alumni as to the advisability of paying out a substantial sum to anyone for performing this service but certainly at that time our alumni were not sufficiently organized to make it feasible to reach most of them without the kind of experience that Messrs. Z possessed. I was strongly in favor of the arrangement and satisfied with the results except in this particular:—many of our younger alumni were stimulated, perhaps over-stimulated, to promise gifts which they have not been able to make. We are still busy trying to collect some of these subscriptions.

The largest advantage to us was drawing the alumni together and becoming aware of their existence as a body.

Satisfaction expressed by institutions may be summed up in the words used by a leading professional agency in its own publicity. The following is one of the reasons advanced by leading professional agencies for using their services:

Any board of directors facing the responsibility of a financial campaign may well turn to those business men who have been through money raising efforts and who have decided, on

the basis of their experience, that a financial campaign is not something which they can attend to in their spare moments; that they cannot profitably turn it over to persons of small experience in this specialized work; that the planning and execution of a financial campaign is a technical problem which can best be solved by experts.

Coming now to the critical evaluation of professional campaign service, let us consider first, the contract itself; then, institutional policy.

1. The contract obligation undertaken by the philanthropic institution is a definite one, *i.e.*, to pay over a certain amount of money. That of the professional promotional agency, it seems to me, is a rather indefinite one. We might say that the commitment of the philanthropic institution is quantitative and that of the professional organization qualitative. The latter agrees to apply to the solution of a given problem a certain technique. Of course everything depends upon how successfully the technique is applied, even assuming the technique itself is adequate for handling the ordinary problem of raising funds.

2. The service is essentially a personal service and everything depends on who the individuals are who actually conduct the campaign. However, I know that in some cases philanthropic institutions enter into contracts with professional organizations to direct a charitable campaign without knowing in advance and having stipulated in the contract exactly who is to direct the campaign.

3. It may be argued that such a personal service contract is no different in essence from a contract between an individual or corporation and an architect to supervise the construction of a house. However, is the analogy quite as simple as that? The value of the services of the architect of course varies with the experience and skill of the individual, but he always works to a set of plans, and while his judgment as to design may be faulty, it is at least possible for the owner of the house or building to verify that the construction is in accordance with the plans and specifications.

Can performance of such a contract really be enforced? In other words, the professional organization does not agree to raise a certain amount, but only to do certain things which it is be-

lieved will, if conditions are favorable, produce the total amount sought. In the nature of things, such contracts have to be terminated after a certain lapse of time and the contracts usually specify a definite termination to the services of the professional organization. Relatively few professionally directed campaigns terminate with the goal reached.

On the other hand, I do not believe any valid criticism can be brought against the use of the service of professional campaign organizers exclusively on the ground of the size of their remuneration. If the intensively organized, short-term campaign is the best way of raising permanent funds, four and a half or five per cent, including professional fees, does not seem like a great deal to lay out if the institution is to increase its capital funds by several million dollars.

In this connection, however, I should like to raise one point: I believe the essence of the issue may be somewhat obscured in the minds of trustees of philanthropic institutions by the fact that the expenses of money raising campaigns, including the remuneration of the professional organization, are not paid out of the patrimony of the institution, but out of new funds brought in by the campaign itself.

These criticisms, as I hope I have already made clear, are not directed at the professional agencies. Perhaps I should withdraw the word criticism, and say that I am trying merely to state the question in such a way as to bring into the light certain larger aspects of the question which I believe are usually passed lightly over by philanthropic trustees when the making of a contract is under consideration by them.

What are some of these larger questions? In my opinion, the most important question to be answered by trustees before they sign a contract for the services of a professional organization is this: Are they justified in placing in the hands of an outside organization, operating for private profit, the decisions as to policy and method which must inevitably be made during the progress of a fund-raising campaign? Oftentimes these decisions have an effect upon the future relations between the institution and the public.

Keep in mind that the professional organization expects to have entire charge of the campaign. In fact, those responsible

for the institution have delegated responsibility to an outside group in matters which may seriously affect the future welfare of the institution. For example, the question of the kind of publicity always arises in campaigns conducted by professional organizations. Unconsciously, the publicity written by the professional organization envisages chiefly reaching the financial goal of the campaign. The educational efforts of the trustees of a philanthropic institution must necessarily take the secular view.

As to this alleged shifting of responsibility, may I be permitted to state the question in another form. Is it not possible that the reason why trustees of philanthropic institutions enter into contracts for professional campaign direction is precisely that they can thereby transfer responsibility for an effort, the outcome of which is uncertain, to a group outside the institution?

After all, the heads of a great educational or philanthropic institution are not expected to possess expert knowledge of the special technique required in order to raise funds on a large scale. What more natural than for them to accept an offer made by experts whose success in similar efforts in the past is the best guarantee of success in the campaign about to be undertaken? Failure to reach the goal of such a campaign is never fatal to the institution, and even a partial success is certain to put a large amount of new money into the treasury without reducing by one dollar the existing capital of the institution.

Of course the influence of the lay supporters of an institution is great. Unquestionably the opinion of the business man that the most expert management possible should be engaged for the money-raising effort carries considerable weight. All I can do here is to state a question as it occurs to me: Should what might be called the efficiency point of view be allowed to outweigh considerations of a spiritual nature when a decision has to be made by trustees of an institution as to the employment of outside professional campaign direction? Can we not be business-like without always being business-minded?

Second question:—What does the average donor think about the employment by trustees of philanthropic institutions of professional, promotional agencies for the purpose of getting subscriptions? Few institutions give publicity to the fact that a

professional agency is being employed to direct the money-raising campaign, and in some instances, efforts are made to keep that fact secret. It may no doubt be answered that the smaller contributor is often himself a worker in the campaign, and he would be the first to admit that subscriptions like his own would probably not be obtained in any other way. This may be true, but what about the larger contributor? Professional organizations make much of the fact that they can assist a college in presenting its case effectively to the large donor. It is even claimed that they can be of assistance in getting foundation grants to such institutions. I cannot believe that the expenditure of a large amount for professional assistance is justified in order to secure \$1,000,000 from half a dozen large contributors.

Third question:—Are not trustees prone to overestimate the importance of the technical method in securing contributions? I believe there is some muddy thinking on this point. It is, I suppose, a temptation to believe, in line with the mechanistic philosophy of the day, that the highly perfected technique which is so commonly used throughout the United States for raising philanthropic funds today, has some particular virtue in making two contributors grow where but one grew before. Personally, I doubt this.

Let us analyze a little the fundamentals in this matter of philanthropic funds. We are justly proud of the great sums poured into philanthropic work in the United States during the past twenty years from private wealth. In my opinion, the relative ease with which this money was transferred from private ownership to community ownership was not chiefly due to any technical method, but to the underlying philosophy of our people in respect to community obligations. The national income of the United States increased enormously from 1909 to 1928. This great increase in wealth was, moreover, accompanied by wide distribution. The number of persons who could afford to give to charity anywhere from \$100 a year up, unquestionably increased proportionately during the period under review. The base of charitable support in the United States greatly widened in the period of years between 1900 and 1928. Before the war a relatively few supplied the funds for financing philanthropic work in the United States. Today millions supply it. The de-

velopment of an intense community feeling was a characteristic of the period mentioned. This is attested by the growth in number and size of welfare organizations, local, state and national, in the United States. Stating the matter in sociological terms, one might say that the three decades ending with 1929 witnessed the fruition of a great collective effort, perhaps as noteworthy as any in the history of the world,—an effort participated in by millions of individuals in the United States, and finding concrete realization not only in material wealth, but in the growth in all sections of the country of social, religious and educational institutions of wide scope and influence.

The success of the YMCA during the years immediately preceding the outbreak of the World War was due to its recognition of the fact that where previously there had been one contributor of \$50 a year, there were now a hundred. Of course, a new technique had to be developed to obtain subscriptions from thousands of individuals who had not been brought up in the habit of charitable giving. But the technique did not create the contributors, any more than it created the wealth.

Another criticism which occurs to me is that the successful application of the campaign technique of money raising has little or no inherent relation to the merit of the philanthropic appeal and the worthiness of the institution asking for funds. I readily admit that the board of trustees of an institution can hardly be expected to be objective in this respect. To put it baldly, however, I wonder if the availability of expert, high grade professional service at low expense for charitable fund raising has not resulted in many millions being raised during the last ten or fifteen years for institutions and objects which more thorough-going analysis would show ought not to have received the funds.

WHAT IS THE SUBSTITUTE FOR PROFESSIONAL CAMPAIGN DIRECTION IN RAISING FUNDS FOR PHILANTHROPIC WORK?

I do not suggest as a complete answer that each institution set up an expertly staffed finance department. Many smaller institutions probably could not afford full-time, salaried service.

In my opinion, the answer lies in a thorough-going re-examination of the whole problem of philanthropic finance, in the light of changing conditions in our national economy. To what

extent are we likely to be dependent for charitable funds upon the actual transfer of capital (*i.e.*, invested funds) from people of great wealth? To what extent can our program of religious, educational and social work be financed out of contributions drawn out of current income of the salaried and wage-earning group in our population?

Such re-examination of the new basis of financial support for philanthropic work offers opportunity for cooperation among organizations in the three chief fields of religious, educational and social work.

The data resulting from such cooperative study could then be applied to the specific problem of the individual institution. In order to apply these general economic data to its own problem, the institution would necessarily have to appraise critically and objectively its own program for the coming five or ten years.

From such examination, the wise decision would doubtless emerge as to the respective rôles to be played in the institution's finance program by the quiet, persistent effort for funds, and by the occasional intensive campaign. For I do not mean in the least to convey the idea that the campaign has ended its usefulness. I believe from now on its rôle will be secondary.

In any long-term program of institutional finance, there should be place for the services of outside professionals in an advisory capacity. I stress the word advisory. The analogy is the use of professional actuaries by pension funds. Greater responsibility should, in my opinion, be assumed by the institution for any efforts it decides to make in the raising of funds.

But even in the actual raising of funds I believe there is opportunity for cooperation between organizations in the same field of activity. I do not mean "joint campaigns" involving some pre-arranged sharing of the funds actually taken in. What I have in mind is such a service as that maintained by the National Council of YMCA's. The national agency puts expert YMCA men at the service of local YMCA's seeking capital funds. The central body makes a charge for this service. Among smaller colleges, and among philanthropic institutions having similar aims, and not too greatly tinged with rivalry, I believe there is ample scope for the development of cooperative

plans for sharing the expense of expert advisory service on finance problems.

In conclusion, is it not high time that we swung our emphasis away from the material aspect of American philanthropy to the spiritual? Suppose the next twenty years did not match the achievement of the past two decades in respect of funds for education and philanthropy, would the coming period necessarily be put down in history as a failure? Are we quite sure that the material growth of our institutions as represented by imposing buildings, additions to teaching staff, and increase in liquid endowments, has not possibly been bought at the cost of spiritual values? Admitting, however, that the great expansion on the material side was altogether necessary and desirable, may we not face the next twenty years with confidence, even though certain that they will not show the same record on the financial side? Surely, with the magnificent physical framework which now exists in the American world of education, social welfare and religion, thanks to the princely sums which have poured into charitable work since the war, there is scope for a great intensification of spiritual activity and room for spiritual growth. In considering the activities of the human spirit, cannot we afford to take the long view? Of one thing we may be certain:—with conscientious devotion to the spiritual aspect of our problem, the necessary technique on the material side will surely develop.

Gilbert Darlington, Treasurer of the American Bible Society, has prepared special charts on which the Bible Society figures out the value of an annuity payable semi-annually on one life with a view of indicating how much of payment may be counted as deduction on the Federal Income Tax. On page 22 of the *Wise Public Giving Series*, Pamphlet No. 31, published by the Commission on Financial and Fiduciary Matters, is to be found the value of one dollar annuity paid each year in semi-annual payments of fifty cents. In order to make the proper calculations for an annuity for two beneficiaries Mr. Darlington suggests that the services of an actuary should be procured. It is a matter, however, of considerable interest that, according to Mr. Darlington, a certain amount of annuity payments may be counted out when the Federal Income Tax is computed.—*R. L. K.*

ENDOWING FLORIDA'S FUTURE

E. T. BROWN

TREASURER, ROLLINS COLLEGE

AN interesting example of cooperation among colleges and universities is a little booklet entitled "Endowing Florida's Future" which was issued in 1930 by the colleges and universities in Florida.

The idea originated with President Hamilton Holt of Rollins College from an address made by Dr. Trevor Arnett, president of the General Education Board, which was reported in the Association of American Colleges BULLETIN, March, 1928.

"Endowing Florida's Future" was written by Mr. E. T. Brown, Treasurer of Rollins College, and edited by Professor E. O. Grover, also of Rollins College. The booklet sets forth the financial needs of Florida's colleges and universities, calling attention to how these needs may be met by bequests in wills. A happy personal note was accomplished by the fact that the booklet was signed by Dr. John J. Tigert, president of the University of Florida; Dr. Edward Conradi, president of Florida State College for Women; Dr. Lincoln Hulley, president of John B. Stetson University; Dr. Bowman Foster Ashe, president of the University of Miami; Dr. Ludd M. Spivey, president of Southern College, and Dr. Hamilton Holt, president of Rollins College.

The booklet was distributed, with a personal letter of transmittal, to all of the bank presidents, members of the bar, and trust officers in Florida. In addition to the general argument for endowment of higher education each institution has an individual page setting forth its most urgent needs in concrete form.

While it is difficult to determine the exact returns from anything so much in the nature of general publicity, it is undoubtedly true that the booklet has been quite valuable in establishing a contact between the colleges and universities and those who are directly concerned with the preparation of wills and the administration of estates.

An interesting example of how such material may yield definite results is illustrated by an experience of Rollins College. Some three years ago a page about wills and bequests was carried in the College "Record" which was mailed to a large number of friends and alumni. Naturally the College cannot be certain, but it appears that two substantial bequests—one for \$10,000 and one for \$45,000—had their beginning with this item of publicity. Doubtless, organized effort could accomplish much more along these lines.

MARYLAND FALLS IN LINE

THE COLLEGES SECURE A NEW LAW

In Maryland the common-law doctrine of charitable uses has just been restored by statute. This is said to make a substantially complete restoration of that doctrine in every state and permits the creation of charitable trusts or foundations in any state for any charitable purpose, even in perpetuity for the benefit of indefinite persons, as well as for colleges and other charitable corporations.

The only limitation to the generality of this statement seems to be in Mississippi. In that state, no gift of land within its borders, or the proceeds of the sale thereof, is permitted *by will* for any charitable purpose, but a similar bequest of personal property is good except for a religious purpose. These restrictions, however, do not apply where a gift is made by means of a living trust.

The Maryland colleges are to be congratulated on procuring the passage of the new statute as it places them on an equal footing with other colleges for securing endowments in the "Campaign of Perseverance."—*R. L. K.*

THE SIGNIFICANCE TO THE CHURCHES OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE DEVELOPMENTS

B. WARREN BROWN

I. RAPID GROWTH OF MOVEMENT

THE first junior college in the country, existing as a separate organization apart from the senior college, was started at Joliet, Ill., in 1902. The new institution found conditions most favorable in California where it grew so rapidly that it has become known in education as a California idea.

Detailed development of the junior college movement in California is traced by Commissioner Cooper in an article published in 1928 (*School Review*). Briefly, the following steps may be noted:

Since 1892 the University of California has been gradually reshaping itself around two organizing ideas. One is that the university proper should begin in the middle of the inherited four year college scheme; the second is that the work of the first two years is as a matter of history and fact all of a piece with secondary education.—*Dean Lange of the University of California in 1917.*

Stanford University stands committed to virtually the same policy and Dr. Jordan gave it currency.

California law in 1907 permitted two postgraduate years to be added to the local high school.

In 1916, the University of California *Register* said:

"We consider the work of the lower division (freshman and sophomore) as an extension of the high school training so that the specific requirements for the junior certificate may be met by studies carried either in the high school, the college, or both."

The Ballard Act in 1917 urged state aid: at that time there were sixteen high schools enrolling 1,259 postgraduate students.

In 1921, junior college departments of high schools had 1,442 pupils enrolled.

In 1921 a Commission on Education reported to the Legislature probable enormous growth in university enrolment and proposed active promotion of junior colleges. A new act was passed creating "junior college districts," five types specified, each requiring a high school population of 400 in

average daily attendance and assessed value of \$10,000,000. Rapid growth followed, resulting by 1928 in twenty high school departments and thirteen junior college districts with aggregate enrolment of 8,173.

Since 1917 a large number of high school junior college courses have been established; eight were converted into junior college districts; twenty-five discontinued, leaving sixteen high school junior college courses with 1,777 enrolled, and sixteen district junior colleges, enrolling 11,716; total in 1928-29 of 13,493 students. (Report of State Department of Education.)

From California the junior college movement has spread over the country with great rapidity. Authorities differ considerably in their figures but agree on general trend:

Public and private junior colleges—

1926—153 (data from Dr. Frazier, U. S. Office of Education)

1928—248

1930—267

1922—207

1927—325 (Koos)

1930—429 (Association of Junior Colleges)

The following classification and distribution from various sources should be noted:

Koos divides his group (1927) into 189 privately controlled, 105 public, 31 state.

Regional division by *Junior College Association* showed California 48, Texas 47, Iowa 28, Missouri 22, Illinois 18, Kansas 19, Kentucky and North Carolina 17 each. Since California, Texas, Illinois and Missouri account for more than half the total enrolment (34,249 out of 67,627), it is clear that the scattering of institutions elsewhere is more formidable in number of institutions than in students.

General statistics are lacking but from scattered data, the junior college development seems an urban movement related to rather dense population and high school attendance. The latter is specified in the enabling legislation in California and Texas. In Texas, actual enrolment of junior college students is in the ratio of 1 to 8.25 in the corresponding junior college district.

JUNIOR COLLEGES AFFILIATED WITH PROTESTANT CHURCHES

	1920	1930	Founded in decade	Passed out	Changed type
Baptist North	8	6	none	2	1 up from secondary 1 to senior college grade
Baptist South	17	27			10 senior college to junior college
Methodist Episcopal	1	3 recognized 3 not recognized		1	5 up from secondary 1 senior college to junior college
Methodist Episcopal South.....	26	21	1	10	3 up from secondary 2 senior college to junior college
Presbyterian, U. S.	14	9	2	5	1 to senior college grade 2 down to secondary 1 to senior college grade 1 senior college to junior college
Presbyterian, U. S. A.	5	6	none	none	1 senior college to junior college
Disciples	6	4	none	2	none
United Lutheran	5	2	none	3	none
Congregational		4			none

Note: Thirteen additional junior colleges under church control or auspices were listed in the *Handbook of Christian Education for 1928*, making a total of 98 or about one fourth of the total number of institutions of junior college grade in the country.

Junior colleges conforming to standards of *regional associations* last year were reported as follows:

North Central Association, 48 accredited, 6 applied; Southern Association, 24 accredited; Northwest Association, 3 accredited; Middle States and Maryland, no data.

Denominational interests in junior colleges are shown on page 261.

II. CLAIMS OF PROTAGONISTS AND THREAT TO SENIOR COLLEGE TYPE

The claims of the junior college have been advanced with a fervor and persistency approaching propaganda. In effect if not intent, they couple the rise of the junior college with the obsolescence if not the elimination of the senior liberal arts college. Secretary Wilbur and Commissioner Cooper, for example, representing the California idea, have frankly stated that "the four-year college leading to the A.B. degree . . . is passing from the picture." The argument is too familiar and complex to treat comprehensively here. Educationally, it is grounded in the same principles which have developed a line of cleavage between the first two and the last two years of the senior college. Some years ago President Lowell said:

The American college has been doing a great deal of teaching that properly belongs to the secondary school.

Dr. Kelly expanded the same thought in these words:

The junior-senior college separation, also functional but becoming increasingly administrative as well, is based upon clearly recognized psychological, economic and sociological considerations. The stages of adolescent development have been quite faithfully charted by the psychologists and sociologists. The work of the first two years is largely rote work. It is really a continuation of secondary-school subjects. The courses are introductory and elementary.

On the organization side, attempts have been made to press the unity of the public school system, bridging the gap between high school and university research or professional training.*

* Not all of the arguments advanced are abstract education. They contain very substantial advantages to universities and public high schools and substantial disadvantages to liberal arts colleges that warrant most careful examination.

The following items seem to include the claims most commonly advanced; no doubt many others could be included.

1. The junior college is the logical capstone of the 6-4-4 movement which regards the last two years of high school and the first two years of college as interchangeable in method and content.

2. It affords an overflow for universities that are overcrowded or fear that they will become overcrowded.

3. Decentralization of college work permits students to live at home, secure education at less cost, under home supervision.

4. "It bridges over the gap and serves as a transition between the high school training and the independent research and initiative expected of the college student after his sophomore year."

5. It eliminates considerable repetition in courses of study.

6. It provides continuity of education within civic centers.

7. It encourages education directly related to life rather than to securing of college or university credit.

Viewed as a whole, both the thesis and the development of the junior college movement have been rather impressive. It is the purpose of the following statement to analyze separately, however, some of the factors which have operated in its progress. Are the educational and social forces of which it has availed itself inherent and monopolized in the junior college, or extraneous and incidental? Can those same forces be used with equal effect by the senior liberal arts college? Are the educational principles advanced to warrant the new type of organization measured up to in actual performance? Data in hand are by no means sufficient to give final answers to these questions. It is believed they will open up lines of inquiry that may be pressed with profit.

III. MAJOR SOCIAL FACTORS IN JUNIOR COLLEGE MOVEMENT

1. *Sudden Increase in Population*

In California and Texas, the two leading junior college states, one cannot fail to correlate to some extent the rise of the new colleges with the rise in population. California between 1920 and the 1930 census led all the states of the Union, including New York, in growth of population, adding 2,250,390 inhabitants, or 65.7 per cent. This population wave, never duplicated

elsewhere in this country at any time, coming concurrently with the report of the Commission on Education to the Legislature of 1921 predicting a probable enrolment of 20,000 students in the University by 1935 and definitely proposing junior colleges as the remedy, gave the movement unusual impetus. Similarly Texas gained 24.9 per cent in population in the decade and was one of five states in the Union to add over 1,000,000 new citizens each. S. M. N. Marrs, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, wrote in June, 1929:

The prosperity of the state has enabled increasingly large numbers of high school graduates to apply for entrance to college and the freshman classes of many of the higher institutions of learning have presented a really serious problem.

My own surveys of nine Methodist and three Presbyterian colleges in Texas indicated that enrolments uniformly exceeded the ability of the church to finance standard education. The population conditions in California and Texas under which junior colleges have had their most rapid development cannot be duplicated elsewhere.

2. Growing Wealth in New Communities with Educational Field Open

Both Dr. Cooper and Superintendent Marrs have referred to community wealth as a factor in the rise of junior colleges. Assessed valuation of junior college districts in California ranges from \$17,112,635 to \$218,415,440, with a median of \$31,285,775. This is a median of \$95,000 per pupil enrolled. Since the true wealth is computed to be about three times the assessed valuation, it is clear that ample funds are potentially available for junior colleges in that state. (See special Report Division of Statistics, State Department of Education, 1928-29.)

In Texas, enabling legislation requires a minimum of \$12,000,000 assessed valuation to permit organization of a junior college district. The junior college does not differ from any other administrative unit in education in requiring money to provide plant and standard instruction. F. P. O'Brien of the University of Kansas, citing expense of this new unit, deplors the hasty organization of schools without ample provision for financing. In Texas, the claims of high school and junior college on the

same constituency have already clashed considerably. On the whole, it is fair to assume that, other factors being constant, the junior college has prospered and will prosper chiefly where community wealth has accumulated to permit adequate financing and where the existing educational structure is not already adequate to the demand; in short, in a new country of growing wealth, population, and deficient provision for education of the level indicated.

3. Educational Pressure and Endorsement from Above

The junior college has received from the large universities strong encouragement and assistance. This no doubt springs in part from the desire to concentrate on research and eliminate burdensome elementary instruction. Mainly, it seems to reflect the tendency of universities to grow to unwieldy proportions and a corresponding desire to decentralize. This is perhaps a tacit confession of failure of mass education and a tacit endorsement of the decentralization of higher education which liberal arts colleges have represented from the beginning. However, it has not been proposed that students leave the university and go to the standard liberal arts colleges in the vicinity; an illogical presumption is created that new public institutions must be set up. The force of the basic argument depends upon how large and how much larger universities are apt to become. Dean Walters, of Swarthmore, compiled data showing that forty-two universities—attendance 3,000 and over—expanded 28 per cent in five years. Universities—1,000 to 3,000—grew 20 per cent in the same period. Fifty-eight colleges—500 to 1,000—grew 23 per cent. Fifty-five smaller colleges grew 15 per cent. The trend was strongly toward the largest institutions. In states and communities where that tendency is marked and constant, decentralization in some form becomes inevitable.

4. Pressure from Below

The junior college has been the beneficiary of some support from the high school level. It is presumably a part of the 6-4-4 plan. Some educators see a parallel between the junior high school and the junior college. One superintendent of public instruction writes:

The junior high school was devised as an institution which would aid in the transition of the grammar school student to the senior high school, and following the parallel, the junior college carried the high school graduate by using the methods of teaching adapted to secondary education into the college field. . . . To carry out the main purpose of its organization, it should follow very closely in the footsteps of the junior high school.

No substantial evidence of this correlation has appeared to date. The states highest in number of junior colleges are California, Texas, Iowa, Missouri. These four states contain 145 junior colleges and only 216 junior high schools. At the other extreme, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Ohio and New York have 466 public junior high schools and only 34 junior colleges (public and private), a ratio of less than 1 to 13. (These figures are based on the current list of junior high schools in use by the Office of Education.)

It seems probable, and the fact is already demonstrated for many places, that junior college patronage is local and mainly out of the adjacent high school. The report of one state department on mortality between high school and junior college writes: "If the municipal junior college is to exist, it must expect its students from its own high school to fill up its college classes." Percentages of the 1928 June high school graduates enrolled in junior college in the fall ranged from 11 per cent to 61 per cent, the smaller ratio in the larger cities. While it is evident that junior college patronage is correlated somewhat with high school strength and support, this fact in no sense shows a vital relation or parallel between the junior high school and the junior college from which one might infer eventual coextensive development. More probably it registers the economy of living at home while attending college.

5. Junior College Development and Community Rivalry

Superintendent Marrs in his 1929 report states:

The state school system was confronted with the danger of over-promotion in cities and towns that were persuaded by ambitious school administrators and enterprising civic clubs and commercial organizations to enter the junior college field when they had not demonstrated their ability or

willingness to support a first-class elementary and secondary school system.

Within the last three months, commercial groups on the south side of Chicago have petitioned for a night junior college. No study has yet been made to determine a demand or an educational need but the west side has the Crane Junior College drawing from the tax-funds. Last year the writer, surveying colleges in Arkansas, was asked to confer with the president of the Chamber of Commerce of Little Rock. This official strongly favored moving a Methodist college to the capital. He stated frankly that Little Rock was going to have a college; he did not care whether it was public or private and had most indefinite ideas of its function or its cost. He was voicing civic pride. Such community rivalry and pride, illustrated above, in no sense represents educational values or needs; it is comparable to the real estate factor which played a large and unfortunate part in the locating of privately controlled colleges in the past generation. Institutions which depend upon support of this character are apt to be founded with enthusiasm and neglected with equal enthusiasm when their community advertising value has declined.

It is impossible to determine how large a part this factor plays in junior college development. Koos found thirty-two institutions on his 1922 list were no longer in existence in 1927. Forty-five junior college projects in connection with high schools have been started in California. Of this number, sixteen are still operating and seven additional have become junior college districts, but the mortality has been heavy. (See *Statistics of District Junior Colleges, 1928-29.*)

6. Cost to the Student

Municipal junior colleges seem to be almost universally day schools. Students live at home, only a small per cent coming from outside. Moderate tuition is charged in some towns, and tuition charges are levied on outside students as in California, either directly or through county assessment. (Average rate of tuition for non-resident students, \$180). Assuming equality of opportunity between boarding and day school, the economy of the latter is an economic factor which cannot be disputed or overlooked. In most private junior colleges the charges are

lower than at adjoining senior colleges although the offerings are also apt to be cheaper. Out of 1,560 junior college students covered in a Texas inquiry from the State Department of Public Instruction, the reasons for attending the local junior college instead of a four year college were as follows: 46 per cent to be at home, 22 per cent convenience, 18.7 cheaper, 2.9 per cent opportunity to work. If representative, these figures show the economic factor to be far more significant than many educational aspects of the junior college. In fact, 71.8 per cent of this same group canvassed, replied to the question: "Would you be in college if there were no junior college?" "Yes."

IV. ANALYSIS OF SOME EDUCATIONAL FACTORS INVOLVED

1. *Objectives of the Junior College*

From its inception, the junior college has had two major objectives which in themselves are open to minor modifications:

- (a) Terminal or completion courses for those who do not care to or ought not to go farther in educational institutions.
- (b) Certificate courses for those planning to go on in the university.

Regarding the terminal type, Dean Lange of California said in 1918:

The junior college will function adequately only if its first concern is with those who will go no farther, if it meets local needs efficiently, if it turns many away from the university into vocations for which training has not hitherto been afforded by our school system.

At present, the State Board of California permits curricula of three types: (1) junior certificate courses for students who go on to university; (2) courses stressing civic problems (finishing diploma); (3) vocational to prepare for immediate participation in vocational pursuits. Clearly (2) and (3) specified are of the terminal variety.*

* No possible exception can be taken by senior liberal arts colleges to junior college terminal courses for special, vocationally-minded, or other students unprepared to go further. Through increasingly selective admission requirements, they have been attempting to exclude just those classes of students.

It is by no means clear, however, that the junior colleges have held closely to this terminal type of curricula. In California, Dr. Cooper states, attendance in terminal courses is increasing. President Blaisdell of Claremont Colleges sees a distinction in objectives depending on the distance from large universities:

In Los Angeles and Berkeley, where the state universities are located and access is comparatively easy to them, the tendency is to emphasize the first objective. On the other hand, the colleges which are more distant from the universities will naturally tend to develop the second objective.

Dr. Sproul of the University of California in his inaugural address (October, 1930) dwelt at great length on the importance of maintaining the first objective and not developing the second.

2. Tendency to Duplicate Senior College Work

However much the junior college was intended to be a terminal institution, the actual drift has been strongly toward the second objective of preparing students for further work in a university and in fact, duplicating the first two years of the four year college. In 1928, Dr. A. J. Klein stated:

The junior college has been deflected from its original social and psychological aims to an overflow institution. . . . Emphasis has been placed upon paralleling the first two years of the four year college course in the nature of the work offered, in methods, and in the training of the faculty. Standards for the junior college have been set up in terms applicable to the four year college. Clear definition of objectives may be expected to discourage further development in this direction.

In Texas, Dean Ullrich of Southwestern reports:

The municipal junior college in the main offers the same type of curriculum as do the senior colleges in the first two years. Municipal colleges are usually tacked on to high schools and since the junior college is more expensive to operate than the high school, the administrators are usually conservative in expanding the program. Generally speaking, junior colleges offer the standard preparatory courses such as English, mathematics, history and the like. It is probably fair to state that most of the junior colleges are somewhat dominated by the standards held by the senior colleges.

In Chicago, the Crane Junior College, which is the largest (attendance 4,000) and most expensively equipped of any in the country, still centers about the regular arts curriculum including departments of Greek and Latin. It prepares large numbers of students for Northwestern and the University of Illinois.

A recent study of Texas Municipal Junior Colleges by J. R. Reed, Chairman of State Board of Examiners, permits direct comparison of curricula of the municipal and the privately controlled colleges. The study is based on curricula of sixteen municipal and twenty independent junior colleges. The report notes a striking similarity of offerings in the municipal group but "at least nine of the sixteen are making some effort to arrange their curricula in such a way as to provide pre-professional training in one or more fields." The more popular groupings are pre-law, pre-medical, pre-business and administration, and pre-engineering. As between the two groups, little difference in semester hour offerings is noted in English, education, history, household arts, mathematics, Spanish, or science. Municipal schools offer much more commercial work and engineering, and the independent group considerable Bible and more fine arts, government, Greek and Latin, and German. (See pp. 62-3 of *Texas Bulletin* No. 255, June, 1929.)

Dr. Judd has proposed that junior colleges give a pre-medical course, pre-law work, and pre-dental work. Dr. Klein predicts a trend in this direction:

The probability is that along with junior college education to provide completion training, will be developed a type of training providing passage from junior college to advanced technical schools or to higher institutions.

Obviously this would be a further departure from the terminal objective and a further encroachment on the standard liberal arts college field.

3. Student Behavior and Objectives

So much for school offerings and objectives. What is the actual student response? District junior colleges in California in 1928-29 enrolled students as follows: Regular, 4,001; provisional, 4,076; special liberal arts, 1,603; vocational, 2,036. The

first two categories representing more than two thirds of the total seem to be certificate students. Out of 3,298 junior college students in Texas, 543 are specials, the rest apparently headed for senior college or university work. Seventy-one per cent had already chosen their vocation in life. About 60 per cent of the enrolment are girls. In totals, the preparation for university seems to outweigh terminal education heavily.

Figures on student mortality, on the other hand, show probable termination of a very high ratio of all junior college students. Freshman enrolment in California is 8,349 as against 3,367 sophomore enrolment, a drop of 70 per cent. In Texas, only one out of sixteen public junior colleges held 50 per cent of its freshmen another year. Four held less than 25 per cent. (This is a parallel of the situation familiar in senior colleges ten to fifteen years ago before the selective principle was applied.)

In California, those who go on from junior college levels tend to go to the universities rather than to liberal arts senior colleges. From 1923-28, for example, Stanford received 1,020 students from junior colleges in the state while colleges of the type of Pomona, Occidental, Redlands, and Whittier have been affected noticeably, one study indicating a decrease of 30 per cent in registrations from communities in which junior colleges have been established. (See Eells and Pomona reports.)

These transfers, however, are far from justifying the claim of time saving advanced for junior colleges; the same students could have taken the same courses in a senior college and withdrawn at the close of the freshman or sophomore year.

Viewed in terms of students instead of the number of institutions, the bulk of the junior college movement is not yet overwhelming. Municipal juniors enrolled only 8 per cent of the total white liberal arts enrolment in Texas in 1928-29. Only one new institution has been added since 1927-28 in that state.

4. Junior College a "Glorified" High School

Both in theory and fact, the junior college has cast in its lot with the high school rather than with the senior college. It proposes to throw back upon the home virtually all responsibility for moral and spiritual environment by making college a day school. It rejects responsibility for liberal education beyond the elementary stages (if there is such a type of education) and

urges the student to get on to vocational, professional and practical life at the earliest possible moment. (That this position is not entirely satisfactory even to the leaders in the junior college movement is clear. Dr. Wilbur says the A.B. degree no longer measures a liberal education and proposes a three year college above the junior college. Dr. Klein refers to the ambition of many junior colleges to become senior colleges at the earliest opportunity. For years, the ambition of the head of the Crane Junior College, the largest in the country, has been to make it a four year college like the City College of New York. In the last three months, Superintendent Bogan of the Chicago public schools has announced his campaign to start a four year city college on the lake front after the Fair.) Secondary school methods have been proposed by those urging this type of institution.

Evidence of this trend is varied and convincing. The following items are cases in point.

(a) Junior colleges were started as adjuncts of the high school and to date have been differentiated only in part.

(b) Joint supervision and overlapping faculties are common. Out of 187 teachers listed on the faculties of junior colleges in Texas, 102 were teaching both college and secondary classes. Out of sixteen schools, eleven had the same administrative head as the high school and more than half had the high school principal as dean. What was educational anathema twenty years ago for a private senior college now becomes eminently respectable when practiced by a municipal junior college. Of these Texas institutions, eleven report to the State Department lack of money, seven poor housing, three lack of students as their problems.

(c) Overlapping plants are noted, both public and private, in various states as between junior college and high school. (Ten out of sixteen in Texas).

(d) Some data are in hand on similarity of grading but no effort has been made to cover instructional method.

5. Junior Colleges and Scholarship

Elaborate studies by Stanford University (California Junior College Mental Educational Survey, W. C. Eells, 1930), by Baylor University, September, 1926, to June, 1930, and reports from

standard senior colleges like Pomona and Southwestern, indicate that junior college students who go on to university or higher work measure up to the reasonable expectations for their grade. Professor Eells finds the rating of the special or terminal students both by Thurstone and Iowa tests to be noticeably lower than that of students who continue on to the university.

6. Salary Comparisons and Data

The California report, *A Study of Salaries and Teaching Loads in Private Junior Colleges* by W. J. Freed, 1929; Texas report, No. 255, June, 1929; and various unpublished studies are exceedingly difficult to reduce to any comparative basis because of the overlapping of high school instruction, variation in teaching load, difference in preparation, range from full-time to part-time instruction, etc. In general, California pays well (average salary \$2,785) and has well prepared teachers (289 with higher degrees). The Texas average is about \$2,000. Freed's average junior college salary in junior colleges is: Southern denominational \$1,750; Northern denominational \$1,893; private undenominational \$2,186. Obviously, these salary figures afford an inducement for high school teachers to aspire to a junior college department.

Data on scholarship, faculty training, and salaries, tend toward an intellectual level of junior college work that is respectable. Frequent and rather caustic criticism can be cited, however, with respect to both instruction and product.

V. RELATION OF CHURCH COLLEGES TO JUNIOR COLLEGE TYPE

It must be quite clear that the university inspired, municipal junior college type now emerging affords intellectual training of a sort (more college directed than terminal) and provides for intellectual elimination of the less prepared whom the universities do not care to accept (virtually the European plan), but signally fails to provide the social environment or the grade of liberal arts training desired by the church. Offering practically nothing the senior colleges have not provided in the past in their lower years, open to many objections formerly levelled at the senior college, appropriating as its own a group of social and educational forces which are entirely independent and not sub-

ject to monopoly, the junior college apparently presents a serious threat to the existence of the older college type. Moreover, in view of the lack of fundamental distinction in its work, it appears in some quarters a step toward mere substitution of a state controlled college system for one now largely under private control. In view of political considerations in Mississippi, Wisconsin, Germany and potentially elsewhere, that tendency alone might cause it to be challenged, certainly to be examined closely.

The issue, however, is not entirely between public and private control. Some of the same lines of cleavage appear between junior and senior colleges controlled by the same denomination.

1. *Undermining Patronage*

The movement is too young to fully assess this effect. Presumably it has reached its highest development in California which therefore affords some criterion.

A study reported by Pomona College shows a 30 per cent decrease in senior college registrations from junior college communities. Reasons cited by students, as in Texas, were less expense, more convenience, opportunity to remain at home.

In October, 1927, total number of junior college graduates entering higher institutions was 132, of whom eighty-one entered two universities.

Before junior college influence was a factor, in 1925 and 1926, Pomona applications totalled 563 to 580 as against 464 and 477 now. President Blaisdell regards the accession of junior college graduates as helping to balance enrolment between the upper and lower years. He adds: "It is my belief that for many years we shall be able to keep a reasonably good attendance during the freshman and sophomore years."

The same competitive forces operate between church schools at the two levels. For example, Kentucky Wesleyan (senior college) and Logan (junior college), both Methodist, South, in Kentucky, have been active competitors for students; similar situations exist between Emory and Henry (senior college) in Virginia and Hiwassee (junior college) in Eastern Tennessee; between Randolph-Macon (senior) and Ferrum (formerly junior) in Virginia. Other instances can be cited in other denominations to show frequently a greater tendency for two

schools in the same constituency to undermine one another than between a public and private college.

In fairness to public-private competition, it must be said that church colleges can take no exception to the terminal objective of junior colleges; or, if they adopt a high selective basis, to junior colleges affording training to students below the level they accept. This is of the essence of democracy. Moreover, this principle operates between church controlled junior and senior colleges. A number of church junior colleges now justify their existence because senior college admission requirements and charges exceed what many in the denomination and community can afford or qualify under.

2. Present Status

Up to the present time, the church has followed the line of least resistance in accepting junior college status for many of its institutions because it permits easier financing, higher standards, retention of institutions otherwise impossible in constituencies of limited resources and patronage. A large proportion of church junior colleges grew out of senior colleges or secondary schools, only a few being founded direct.

Junior colleges individually and as a group, their faculties and officers, have less initiative with respect to educational standards and practice, enjoy less prestige than the corresponding senior college groups. Nearly all junior colleges inspected aspire to senior college development in the future.

3. Present Tendencies

In the North, the status of church institutions is becoming reasonably stabilized for the present. Methodists, Presbyterians, Disciples, Lutherans, Congregationalists, Baptists report no immediate pressure to further reduce senior colleges to junior status. In one or two cases it is expected that junior colleges will reach senior status. In the South, an equilibrium has not yet been reached. A considerable number of academies (Presbyterian, U. S., Methodist Episcopal, South, and one Congregational) aspire to become junior colleges because of the sharp competition of public high schools. Consolidations of two or more institutions are to be expected rather than an accession of more junior colleges. Westmoreland (junior college) in San

Antonio has been promised senior college status in the near future.

4. *Junior College Organization*

Considerable variation is found in the number of grades in junior colleges under church auspices. The preference seems to be for a four year unit although some schools are definitely working toward a two year level. A greater preponderance of the lower years is found in the mountain section.

	<i>Two Year Unit</i>	<i>Four Year Unit</i>	<i>Six Year Unit</i>
Baptist	none	5	none
Methodist Episcopal	2	1 (approved)	3 (2 approved)
Presbyterian U. S. A.	2	3	none
Disciples	none	5	none
United Lutheran	2	none	none
Methodist Episcopal, South	2	all others	
Presbyterian U. S.	none	all	

Where the demotion of a senior to junior college status is in question, obviously it must go to the two year level. This puts it at a disadvantage in respect to regular advancement of students from lower levels, leaving it entirely dependent on recruiting from outside to protect its enrolment. With only two classes, a serious depression or loss might almost wipe out the attendance in one year. This factor must be considered in estimating the permanence of the institution.

5. *Degree of Permanence*

The junior college as an educational unit has undoubtedly come to stay. The life of any individual junior college, whether publicly or privately controlled, is by no means so secure. In California and Wisconsin, junior colleges established in connection with state normal schools have been given up. Municipal junior colleges competing with their own high schools for financial support are at a disadvantage. Privately controlled junior colleges are open to attack both on the side of finance and of patronage.

Some institutions in the South have urged their claim on the church and their assurance of permanence because they prepare

teachers and preachers. This, however, is their weakness rather than their strength. The fact that two years of college are required for first grade certification or for licenses in that section is quite accidental. If those standards were to be raised, schools like Lindsey-Wilson and Logan would lose half their students and go out of business immediately. Moreover, the standards are steadily rising.

<i>State</i>	<i>Period required for Teacher Training Certification</i>
New York	3 years
Massachusetts	3 years from now on
Arizona	3 years after Jan. 1, 1931
New Jersey	3 years lengthened from 2 years normal
Idaho	2 years normal
Washington	3 years beginning 1933
District of Columbia	4 years in 1933
California	4 years

In a number of cases demotion of a non-standard senior institution like Western Union College to the junior college level would permit it to become standard at once, strengthening its educational position. In the long run, this would help to prevent loss of patronage, provided the patient survived the operation. In the last analysis, the wisdom of such a change is a local problem; precedents elsewhere under radically different conditions cannot be regarded as convincing. Evidence at hand is by no means conclusive enough to guarantee results. Reduction of a senior college to junior college status may be merely a polite way to die. It may be a temporary step toward consolidation with a stronger institution in the same field and constituency.

6. Joint Administration of Senior and Junior College

As a rule colleges under church auspices have been highly individual. The Randolph-Macon system, with five institutions under a single board is a notable exception. Failure to maintain strictly the financial solidarity and central control provided for in the Charter has resulted in acute embarrassment due to heavy debt incurred by the academies.

Provided financial and educational solidarity is properly safeguarded in practice, much may be said for the administration of a junior college as a part of a nearby senior college of the same constituency and control.

(a) Provides educational policy now lacking in some smaller institutions.

(b) Assures greater financial conservatism. (A decided weakness of church schools when they feel they are losing ground is to spend extravagantly in the hope of attracting new patronage and support.)

(c) Eliminates neutralizing effect of two or more institutions of the church in competition.

(d) Permits retention of some junior institutions in sections with weak constituency during the transition period until future is clear or impossible.

(e) Permits eventual consolidation with minimum loss and friction if such action becomes wise or necessary in the future.

At present, cooperation of this type is found mainly in the South. The Presbyterian U. S. A. and the Methodist Episcopal Churches have no instances of it. The Baptist North have only a partial relationship between the University of Chicago and Frances Shimer Junior College. Since the consolidation, the Congregationalists have Piedmont in Georgia (Congregational) and Piedmont in Alabama (Christian) loosely affiliated but the arrangement is not very satisfactory, due to distance. Presbyterians U. S. approximate local solidarity through their strong synodical control. Most examples of this adjustment are found with the Methodist Episcopal Church, South.

Emory University has two junior colleges administered as an integral part of the parent school except for location on different campuses.

Millsaps College has one junior college under its complete supervision and control.

Hendrix-Henderson College has just taken over complete control of Galloway College.

Austin College (senior Presbyterian U. S.) and Kidd-Key Junior College (Methodist Episcopal, South) in Sherman, Texas, have an administrative and educational adjustment of importance.

Southwestern (Methodist Episcopal, South) in Texas and a junior college nearby under Methodist Episcopal control are considering an educational relationship.

Summerland College (United Lutheran) was a junior college department of Newberry College but has recently been consolidated.

Kentucky College for Women was taken over by Centre College and temporarily conducted as a junior college but has practically been consolidated.

These instances, some working very satisfactorily, point to an adjustment which may help to guide many schools through the period of uncertain financial stability. It would minimize a growing line of cleavage between senior college and junior college men within a denomination.

7. Other Adjustments

Outside of any organic relationship, the interaction of senior and junior church institutions is various. Carleton and Agnes Scott prefer not to receive students from a junior college. Pomona, on the other hand, not only receives them but is seriously considering a three year senior college above the junior college level, having 100 graduate students now with prospect of more. Most senior colleges accept credits, course for course, from standard junior colleges.

8. Relative Value to the Church

This survey, both by report and previously in personal inspection, has sought for qualities in the junior college organization and type that make it preferable to the senior college from the church standpoint. It has been assumed, for example, that this newer, less highly organized institution, less hide-bound by old tradition and old-fogyism, would prove far more flexible in adapting itself to the needs of the new generation, openly in revolt against tradition. No evidence to that effect has appeared. The junior college stands no closer to the local church, to the religious education work and church school, or to the summer conference work, than does the senior college. On the other hand, it lacks the leadership, richness of offering, completeness of equipment, well organized environment, financial

and educational solidarity, and a score of lesser qualities that characterize the senior college at its best.

Beyond reasonable adaptation to social forces in a given situation, modernizing its curricula to meet social needs which are desirable in any event, this study sees no occasion for senior colleges either to be unduly alarmed by the junior college movement or to sell out to it. It may be used to advantage to ease the retirement of some senior colleges that will be eliminated in any event because of changed conditions or support. It can be used to advantage to hold some fields too small or weak to support a senior college. Undoubtedly some senior colleges founded in a rural and less populous era will have to readjust themselves to an industrial and urban era. This many have done and all are entitled to do as freely as a junior institution. No doubt greater diversity of educational objectives will be reflected in more varied types of institutions. No institution has yet appeared to serve or express the religious cultural objective more adequately than the senior liberal arts college.

INSTITUTE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS

The sixth annual Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions will be held at the University of Chicago on July 8, 9, and 10. The central theme of the Institute will be "Recent Trends in American College Education." The opening day will be devoted to a discussion of progressive reforms at the junior college level. On the second day similar reforms at the senior college level will be considered. The program for the third day relates to improved types of college tests and to comprehensive examinations.

The University extends a most cordial invitation to administrative officers of all higher institutions, including liberal arts colleges, teachers colleges, and universities, to attend. Arrangements have been made for those who attend the Institute to visit classes and to enjoy other University privileges without the payment of fees. Letters of inquiry should be addressed to Dean William S. Gray, School of Education, The University of Chicago.

IN MEMORIAM

SINCE the Indianapolis meeting six presidents of member colleges of the Association of American Colleges have been called to their reward. Four of them died within a week of each other, during the latter part of March.

Death claimed President William Henry Agnew of Creighton University on February 1. Born in 1881 he had received his academic and theological education at St. Louis University. He had been president of Creighton University since August 26, 1928, and had previously for six years (1921-27) been president of Loyola University in Chicago. Dr. Patrick J. Mahan has been designated to succeed Dr. Agnew as president of Creighton University.

President Hubert F. Brockman of St. Xavier College died of pneumonia on February 12. He was fifty-two years of age and had been president of the college since 1923. Dr. Hugo F. Sloctemeyer has been elected to succeed him.

Following a long siege of influenza President Elmer Rhodes Hoke of Catawba College passed away on March 25. He was thirty-eight years of age and had been president of the College since 1924. A graduate of Franklin and Marshall College and of the Theological Seminary of the Reformed Church in the United States, he took his graduate work and Ph.D. degree at Johns Hopkins University. After receiving his doctorate he taught education and psychology at Hood and Lebanon Valley Colleges, having previously filled pastorates for several years.

President Daniel Richard Sullivan of Seton Hill College also died on March 25, as a result of injuries to his spine received in an automobile accident last November. Although paralyzed he had continued to direct the affairs of the college. He had been associated with Seton Hill College since 1911 and had been dean of the college from 1911 to 1925, when he became president.

On March 28 President Mervin Grant Filler of Dickinson College succumbed to a complication of diseases after a month in the hospital. Dr. Filler was the first layman to be elected president of Dickinson College in its more than one hundred and fifty

years of existence. He was a graduate of the college and had served as professor of Latin and as dean over a period of nearly thirty years before assuming the presidency in 1928. Dr. James Henry Morgan, whom Dr. Filler had succeeded as president, has been named acting head of the college.

On April 1, the day before his seventy-second birthday, President John Hanson Thomas Main of Grinnell College died of anemia after an illness of four weeks. A graduate of Moore's Hill College (now Evansville College) and a Ph.D. from Johns Hopkins University, President Main had been at Grinnell College since 1900. For two years he was acting president and then for the next four years was dean of the faculty, holding that post until 1906 when he became president. Elaborate plans had been under way to celebrate at Commencement this June the twenty-fifth anniversary of his inauguration as president of the college.

The Association notes with deep regret the passing of these outstanding educators who have contributed so much to the education of the youth of the country.*—*A. M. P.*

* Just before going to press word was received of the death on May 14 of President Samuel P. Brooks of Baylor University, who had been ill for some weeks.

TOPICS FOR "THE EDUCATIONAL SANITARY COMMISSION"—AND OTHERS

ROBERT L. KELLY

IN connection with the rather extensive study of the smaller colleges which has been going on now for more than a year under the direction of the staff of the Association of American Colleges, an effort is being made to secure information of a more intimate character than has heretofore been the case in college surveys concerning a group of selected colleges whose officers and faculties are willing to "play the game."

As is well known, there is one college in the country whose students uniformly achieve remarkable results in the various types of psychological examinations. In the report of the American Council on Education published in *The Educational Record* for April, 1931, this college, in accordance with its habit, stands first in the scoring, with rather a large margin between its score and the colleges which rank respectively second and third, not to speak of the colleges which rank very much below. Why does this thing happen over and over again? Is there some explanation for it? Or, more reasonably, are there explanations? Rudyard Kipling once hinted with characteristic artistry that there are places in the world where there "aint no Ten Commandments." Are we to assume that at least within the educational realm Einstein has done his perfect work and there "aint no law" of cause and effect?

By special commission, this office is applying some largely non-objective tests to a group of ten small colleges affiliated with the Society of Friends and for purposes of comparison to an equal number of colleges in the same states of about the same size operated under other auspices. The returns for these eighteen or twenty institutions are now all in and are being studied in the office of the Association. Cooperating with the members of the Association staff in this study and in the larger study of the group of smaller colleges are graduate students, candidates for higher degrees, in five American and one foreign university.

Some of the questions and topics of the more intimate type, submitted to the officers and faculty members of the Friends colleges and a few others, are appended to this article. Schedules used in gathering data from trustees and students cannot be reproduced here but samples will be furnished to any who desire them on application.

Some of the topics presented for the consideration of the officers and faculties are purposely general and at times even ambiguous, and indeed in a few instances, suggestions are made which might be misleading, if the writers were not thinking carefully. The purpose of the topics is not to get final answers to air-tight and water-tight questions, but to fertilize the minds of our correspondents and to elicit from them replies which indicate the development of their own thinking along the lines indicated. The study is realistic and pragmatic; it does not aspire to be or hope to be idealistic or definitive. If it occurs to the reader that the topics are of unequal value, the answer is that this scheme does not claim to have all wisdom as its origin, and furthermore some important points are being raised in other phases of the general study. It should be said that the writer has been for years a student of the educational philosophy of John Dewey, and quite a number of these topics have been suggested by him—not for this especial study but in his educational writings. In the very last article which Professor Dewey has published, which appears in the May, 1931, issue of *Scribner's Magazine*, he says: "There is no education when ideas and knowledge are not translated into emotion, interest and volition."

The purpose of this study is to arouse if possible some of the more or less latent dynamic of a small number of college officers and teachers. We are simply trying this thing out.

The Topics for Officers and Faculties have been submitted to the members of the committee appointed by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools to suggest a revision of their present standardization practices. The fact that the North Central Association has recognized the inadequacy of the present methods of standardization has been mentioned a number of times by various writers in this *BULLETIN* for the past two years. Many of our members are still impressed

by the memories of the vital discussion of these topics at the Chattanooga meeting more than two years ago. In the very remarkable address delivered by Chancellor Samuel P. Capen on "The Principles which should Govern Standards and Accrediting Practices" at the last session of the North Central Association and published in the April issue of *The Educational Record*, Dr. Capen, among concluding remarks, said:

I believe there should no longer be any accrediting practices. If tomorrow morning every accrediting committee in the country should adjourn *sine die* and every accredited list should be destroyed, I believe American education would receive such a stimulus as it has not received in a dozen years. There has been but one justification for accrediting and that is educational malpractice, deliberate or unconscious. I do not say that this has entirely disappeared. But I do maintain that it has been so greatly reduced as to require no such elaborate and costly—yes, and tyrannical—machinery as the existing accrediting system to keep it under control. The pirates and buccaneers have been swept from the seas. It takes no very ponderous armament to deal with an occasional picaroon.

Because I am not quite a nihilist I have a substitute for current accrediting practices to propose. I propose that every regional and national body now engaged in accrediting, establish, in place of its accrediting machinery, a sanitary commission. The function of such a commission would be to investigate any institution thought to be unsound or dishonest and give the findings wide publicity. As a corrective of errors or a deterrent to fraud such a procedure would be quite as efficacious as the present accrediting procedure. Does any one doubt that it would be far less expensive in time and money? But much more important than any matter of cost would be the general relief from the deadly mechanical coercion of the type of standards on which accrediting is now based.

As a profession are we willing to go on measuring the package in order to determine the chemical constitution of the contents? Obviously this Association is not willing. Otherwise it would not have undertaken the extensive inquiry into the whole question of college standards which has just been launched.

Although I am a member of the committee that has the inquiry in charge—thus far, let me confess, a very negligent member—I do not now speak for the committee. But you

have asked me to say what principles should govern the formulation of standards by which institutions and the product of institutions are to be judged. I give you my answer in two words: educational principles. I hope the committee will finally recommend that all standards except educational standards be abandoned. To be sure we do not at present possess a complete and satisfactory set of educational standards. They are being rapidly created, however. And those we have already are better measures of education than the statistical and political standards that now constitute the stock in trade of the standardizing agencies.

Nevertheless, I am optimistic enough to believe that if we can bring genuine educational standards into common use the whole industry of institutional accrediting will go the way of the pollywog's tail. Like the pollywog's tail it is an instrument appropriate to an early stage of development. We shall then be willing to let each institution work out its own destiny in the manner best suited to its educational theories and its environment, without placing upon its brow either a laurel wreath or a crown of thorns.

"QUERIES"

Of course, it may in no sense be demanded that the greatest results which may follow from these lists of questions will come from what anybody writes about them. The main thing, as Professor Dewey says, is the emotion, interest and volition. It has been the custom of the Society of Friends for many generations to have read in the presence of the congregations in stated meetings a series of questions pertaining to the deeper things of the spirit. These are known technically among Friends as The Queries. The meetings of Friends are very democratic and ordinarily anyone who feels moved of the Spirit has the right to speak in meeting, but nobody is expected to stand up and give a vocal answer to these Queries, nor is there a committee appointed to secure answers and tabulate them and divide them into quartiles and tell what the average is or the median. On the other hand, the Friends who hear The Queries, if indeed they catch the spirit of the meeting, listen in silence and meditate upon their applicability to their own lives. The occasion is usually a very solemn one indeed, and much self-analysis may and frequently does go on. It is expected that there will be answers to The Queries, but those answers are to be given in the

better lives which the members live when they get outside of the Meeting House.

It is believed that some such method as this, as each officer and each teacher evaluates his own educational processes and life, individually and in the group, will be the largest fruitage of such questions as are submitted here. One may have more hope for results if the questions are used in this way even than if they are submitted to the educational sanitary commission proposed by Dr. Capen. In this connection it might be well to recall another one of Professor Dewey's recent remarks:

The adult is more apt to learn than the youth. But the courage and conviction which is to direct them must proceed from the few.

TOPICS FOR OFFICERS AND FACULTIES

These topics have been prepared for and with the criticism of officers and faculties; such answers as are made will be by officers and faculties from the point of view of officers and faculties. In the nature of the case it is realized that not every person will undertake to write on all of the topics suggested or implied. On the contrary, each writer will make his own selection and state definitely whether he writes from documentary evidence (e.g., an officer who makes contracts with teachers), or from actual teaching experience (in or out of the group), or from observation (as a critic of college affairs). The chief value of the topics is that they attempt to indicate certain areas of vital procedure in the complex college life. If a writer has no observation to make on a given topic, he will omit the topic. What is omitted may be as significant as what is written. The hope is that a picture may be secured of the present situation with dark lines as well as light.

It is hoped that what is written will not be prolix, but that a studied effort will be made to confine the statements to what are considered as the essentials. The main purpose of the questions is to ascertain, if possible, by this method, (1) what ideals and objectives are held by officers and faculties severally; and (2) the methods by which the members of the staff severally undertake to realize these ideals and objectives. If there is no concerted effort along these lines, what is written may disclose that fact.

The reviewers of the replies have no preconceived notions or prejudices in terms of which the replies are to be interpreted. Their function is to assemble the facts and the points of view and to report such digests as may be possible to such groups as may be agreed upon.

The replies, without being reviewed at the college, will be sent to the Association of American Colleges, 111 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York.

[PLEASE NUMBER YOUR RESPONSES TO CORRESPOND WITH THE TOPICS]

1. Name, college, position and length of service in this college, of the writer. (Your academic and professional history is already known.)

2. *College Objective*—What is it, as you understand it? What contribution do you individually attempt to make to its realization?

3. *Theory of Education*—In what order of value, if any, do you rate college education as: a process of thinking, the attainment of culture, knowledge, development of appreciations, life, growth, sharing experience,—or what besides?

4. *Theory of Teaching*—With what methods are you chiefly concerned: instruction, drill, guidance, development of ideals, training, stimulation of initiative into personal, social, creative experience—or what besides? (Note the difference between a method and an objective.)

5. *Religious Values*—(This area is generally spoken of in terms of "church membership". The survey has statements from the President on religious qualifications for appointment). How, from your observation, do teachers in service rate the actual place of religious values in the college program? To what extent do the particular ideas of the church to which the college is related, function in your own work, and (from observation) in the work of your colleagues?

6. *"Experimentation"*—Of what striking methods or especial "experiments" in the college, intended to promote its educational effectiveness, are you aware?

7. *Integration*—In what ways do you or others attempt to integrate subjects or departments or fields of study, or to synthesize knowledge?

8. *Fine Arts*—To what extent do the plastic and graphic arts, music, rhythm and dramatics figure in the program of the

college, and in your own program? (Answer as a responsible teacher or as an observer and indicate which.)

9. *Group Solidarity*—To what extent does the college attempt in curriculum procedure, group thinking or to develop a habit of social behavior? Do these attempts deal only with ideas or do they try to get down to purposes, motives, attitudes and methods of group life? Illustrate.

10. *Student Purposes*—Cite evidences, if any, that individual students or groups of students are forming or executing important purposes, or even life purposes.

11. *Intelligence Tests*—What methods are used to determine native intelligence?

12. *Disposition Toward Work*—What evidences do you have that certain students actually have a disposition to work and to form habits of work? How general is this?

13. *Special Capacities*—How, specifically, do you attempt to develop students' power to reason, imagination, character?

14. *Indoctrination*—In what ways, if any, do you give indoctrination in economic, political, national and international principles? In your judgment, is there a prevailing tendency in any or all of these directions among your colleagues? Is the college corporately committed to such forms of indoctrination even to the extent of making a teacher uncomfortable who does not conform?

15. *Teaching Load*—What is the ratio of time spent by you (1) in stated class periods (or the equivalent), and (2) in extra individual conferences and (3) extra group conferences?

16. *Home Life*—To what extent do you share your home life with students?

17. *Conferences With Students*—Indicate approximately the order in which students seek you out for advice and counsel on: classroom problems; incompleting work; study problems related to your courses; extra-curriculum matters; graduate work; vocational guidance; home situations; religious conflicts; course selection; personal matters; others (specify).

18. *Relation to Status Quo*—To what extent do you and your colleagues (i.e., by observation of their utterances and publications) attempt to fit individuals for the existing social order and/or for responsibility for social planning?

19. *Practical Citizenship*—In what ways do members of the staff share in democratic living, including political citizenship? Did you vote at the elections in 1928 and 1930? What is your conception of Americanism?

20. *Controversial Questions*—Does the college allow or encourage the discussion of controversial questions? Of what types, and when and where?—e.g., relations of capital and labor; history and aims of labor organizations; causes and extent of unemployment; methods of taxation; relation of government to redistribution of national income; family relations; prohibition; war and peace; causes and cures of crime; causes and cures of disease; foreign missions; the place of the church; the ministry; others?

21. *Morale*—Does the teacher have a vital place in the organization or is he merely a cog in an impersonal machine? In what ways is the work of administrators closely related or far removed from that of teachers?

22. *Creative Work*—What further tests and what methods of administration would lead to greater release of creative work on the part of the teachers?

23. *Leaves of Absence*—When was your last leave of absence? For how long? On what pay? How did you use it?

24. *Incentives to Students*—What advantages of a college education are most frequently held up to students in chapel addresses and at other times, e.g., "success," a "career," "money getting"?

25. *Publications*—[The survey has a list of your publications for the past five years]—What books or other publications are you now working on or projecting?

26. *Professional Reading*—Of what has your general professional reading program (not for daily work or for research) consisted for the past two years? Do you have a related avocation?

27. *Racial Relations*—What racial relations are taught and what actually exist in the college?

28. *Atmosphere*—What peculiar and distinctive factors do you recognize as composing the atmosphere of the college?

If the conclusions are prescribed, the study is precluded.—
Bishop Temple.

QUESTIONABLE QUESTIONNAIRES

A LETTER AND A PLAN ON THE OVER PRODUCTION OF QUESTIONNAIRES—A TIME SAVER FOR COLLEGE OFFICIALS

To the Members of the Association of American Colleges:

This office has frequently been asked to render first aid in the matter of questionable questionnaires.

At a meeting of the Executive Committee of the Association held in New York on Saturday, April 18, at which every member was present, the suggestion was made that I write a letter to our member colleges regarding this matter. The office is anxious to relieve the colleges of extra burdens in this field as well as in all others whenever such relief can be offered intelligently.

There are certain types of questionnaires which appear to be inevitable. In this class, for example, are the fundamental ones coming from the United States Office of Education, the inquiries that come from the foundations, from the standardizing agencies, and for church related colleges, from the church boards of education. Even in most of these fields however—I of course except the foundations—we have had for some time as you know a joint committee of this Association, the Council of Church Boards of Education and of various other organizations, including now the Associations of Business Officers, which is attempting to formulate a uniform, and of course minimum, statistical blank for college reports. If and when this work is accomplished, we believe the burden on the institutions will be very materially reduced.

You are receiving a multitude of questionnaires, however, from various faculties, faculty groups, individual faculty members and from various kinds of candidates in the graduate schools for higher degrees, as well as from miscellaneous sources.

While it is too early to announce a finished technique of procedure, the accompanying proposal has been evolved as a

possible basis for the consideration of member colleges. This proposal can certainly not be put into operation immediately, but if you are willing to cooperate along any one or more lines we would be glad to hear from you. I think you will agree with us on one point, namely, that there is a serious over-production of questionnaires. Do you see any way in which this office can help you?

Very sincerely yours,

ROBERT L. KELLY

THE PLAN

The suggestion is made for your consideration, that the colleges which desire to cooperate in this matter may refer questionnaires of doubtful value to the Association of American Colleges.

This would mean, after this practice became established, that persons desiring to circulate questionnaires would, in the first instance, send a copy to this office. This office would then inquire into the authenticity of the questionnaire itself, whether it had the indorsement of a responsible institution or graduate school; whether, in case the questionnaire is properly approved, part or all of the data might not be furnished from the very extensive factual resources at our command in this office; and finally, whether the author or authors of the questionnaire are willing to pay to this office or to the colleges approached, or to both if it were necessary to divide responsibility, the necessary cost of making an adequate reply to the questionnaire.

After making these inquiries this office would disapprove the questionnaire, or approve it with modifications, or approve it without modifications. In either of the two latter cases the questionnaire when issued would bear a statement regarding its approval.

Colleges receiving questionnaires so approved would presumably fill them out with a considerable measure of confidence in their value. Questionnaires without such approval could with entire propriety be disregarded—perhaps with notice to the sender that the questionnaire was being disregarded because of the fact that it did not have the approval of this Association.

The practice pending the establishment of the plan, would differ from the foregoing only in that many questionnaires, as at present, would be sent directly to the colleges without submission to this office. The procedure on the part of the colleges during this period with questionnaires concerning which they were in doubt would be exactly as outlined above—except that the secretary of the Association would presumably ask certain colleges to supply him with copies of questionnaires received and disregarded. The issuer, failing to get the questionnaires filled out, would then presumably apply to this office for approval; and the procedure as above outlined would then go forward.

This plan is being sent to the Deans of Graduate Schools, of Schools of Education, of Theological Seminaries and others among whose members questionnaires are often originated. We hope to secure their cooperation.

ROBERT L. KELLY

Executive Secretary

May 12, 1931

COLLEGE ARCHITECTURE IN AMERICA

A book written for College Presidents, Architects, Boards of Trustees, Business Managers of Colleges, Superintendents of Buildings and Grounds, Engineers, Landscape Architects, School of Architects, etc.—in fact any one interested in education and the proper construction of buildings to house those various departments which form the parts of an educational institution.

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Association of American Colleges

111 Fifth Avenue

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FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION AND INSTRUCTION

ARCHIE M. PALMER

TWENTY-FOUR universities and colleges have announced for this summer, courses on various aspects of college administration and college teaching. Included in the group are the Universities of California, Chicago, Cincinnati, Colorado, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Pittsburgh, Southern California, Washington and Wisconsin; Duke, Indiana, New York, Northwestern, Ohio State, Stanford, and Western Reserve Universities; Colorado State Teachers College, George Peabody College for Teachers, Iowa State College and Teachers College of Columbia University.

Through these professional courses on the study of higher education an immeasurable stimulus is being provided for the professional growth of college faculties, and a steadily increasing number of college administrators and teachers have in recent years been taking advantage of these opportunities for in-service improvement offered during the summer vacation period. While the offerings at most of the institutions are limited to a single course or two on selected phases of the field, there are to be found more comprehensive and varied programs available at several institutions, particularly at the University of Chicago, Teachers College of Columbia University, the University of Michigan, the University of Pittsburgh and Ohio State University.

Basic or general courses on the organization and administration of the American college and university, as well as specific problems of instruction and of the professional duties of the various administrative officers are offered at these five institutions. General courses are also announced at the University of Colorado, Indiana University, the University of Kentucky, the University of Minnesota, New York University, Duke University, and Western Reserve University. President Frank L. McVey of the University of Kentucky will be in charge of the course at that institution; President Wendell S. Brooks of Intermountain Union College will give the course at the University of Colorado; President Homer P. Rainey of Franklin College will direct the

course at the University of Minnesota; and President George F. Zook of the University of Akron will be one of the instructors at the University of Pittsburgh.

Questions of college instruction and its improvement are being given considerable attention in the courses announced for this summer. Not only is this topic being featured in the basic courses but also in specific courses on that subject which are being offered at a number of institutions. The Universities of Chicago, Cincinnati, Missouri and Southern California; Ohio State, New York and Stanford Universities; George Peabody College for Teachers, Iowa State College and Teachers College of Columbia University have all announced specific courses on the improvement of college teaching.

Courses on training school problems in the professional education of teachers, intended primarily for those concerned with teacher training institutions, are also offered at the Universities of Chicago, Minnesota and Wisconsin, the Colorado State Teachers College and George Peabody College for Teachers. In these courses are included the consideration both of administrative and of instructional problems.

Courses of particular value to those concerned with or interested in the office of the college registrar are offered at the Universities of Chicago and Kentucky, at George Peabody College for Teachers and at Teachers College of Columbia University. Special courses on the financial and business administration of higher institutions are offered at the University of Chicago, at Ohio State University and at Teachers College. Courses on publicity and public relations and on vocational guidance in colleges are also being offered at Teachers College.

Instruction in the work of deans of men, deans of women and other college personnel officers is announced among the offerings at the Universities of Chicago, Michigan, Pittsburgh and Southern California, New York and Ohio State Universities, and Teachers College of Columbia University.

In addition the following institutions will this summer offer specific courses on the junior college: the Universities of California, Chicago, Missouri, Nebraska, Southern California and Washington; Duke, New York, Northwestern and Stanford Universities; George Peabody College for Teachers and Teachers College of Columbia University. These courses are intended

both for administrators and instructors in junior colleges and for those interested in learning about this important educational movement.

The regular teaching staffs of these institutions are augmented by specialists and experienced workers in the college administrative and teaching fields who can be enlisted during the summer months to direct work of this character. Among those giving their services this summer are a number of college presidents and other administrative officers. Mention has already been made of Presidents McVey, Brooks, Rainey and Zook. Others who will give such work this summer are former presidents Clarence C. Little at Teachers College, George A. Works at the University of Chicago and A. M. Stowe at Duke University, Vice-President C. S. Yoakum at the University of Michigan, and a number of presidents of teachers colleges. Deans H. D. Sheldon of the University of Oregon, Shelton Phelps of George Peabody College, H. L. Smith of Indiana University, Charles E. Friley of the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas and A. J. Brumbaugh of the University of Chicago are also conducting courses this summer, as are Registrars Ezra L. Gillis of the University of Kentucky and J. R. Robinson of George Peabody College, and many other experienced survey and research workers in the field of higher education.

Last year a total of twenty institutions announced summer courses on the professional study of problems of higher education. Although three of these—the Universities of Alabama, Idaho and Texas—are not offering such courses this summer the number of institutions has been augmented by seven new ones, bringing to twenty-four the total number of institutions announcing such courses for this summer. The individual course offerings have also been expanded materially both in number and in scope, and in addition to these specific professional courses there are offered, both in summer sessions and during the academic year, many courses on the history, principles and philosophy of education and in particular subject matter fields which are of value and interest to college teachers and administrators. The rapidly extending interest in problems of higher education is placing demands upon our colleges and universities for an enlarged and more effective service which they are in this way making positive efforts to meet.

CONFERENCE ON THE TEACHING OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

A. R. ELLINGWOOD

ON April 3 and 4, 1931, a conference on the teaching of undergraduate courses in the social sciences was held at Northwestern University. One hundred and twenty-seven instructors in economics, history, philosophy, political science, psychology, sociology and anthropology were in attendance, representing fifty-three colleges in the Middle West.

There were two general sessions, the first devoted to a consideration of freshman courses in the social sciences, with papers by Dean Aleida J. Pieters of Milwaukee-Downer College and Professor Raymond C. Miller of the College of the City of Detroit; the second dealing with the relation between teaching and research in the undergraduate college, with papers by Professor Mandell M. Bober of Lawrence College, Professor Sterling T. Williams of Lake Forest College, and Dr. Laura F. Ullrich of Northwestern University.

On the afternoon of the 3rd, the conference met in five round tables:

(1) *Economics*: Topic for discussion, "The Place of Problems in Courses in Elementary Economics." Papers by Professor Lloyd W. Ballard (Beloit College), Professor Martin F. Thurston (University of Detroit), Professor Herman H. Bencke (Miami University), Professor James A. Campbell (Knox College), and Professor Gilbert H. Barnes (Ohio Wesleyan University).

(2) *History*: Topic for discussion, "Special Work for Superior Students." Papers by Professor David R. Moore (Oberlin College), Professor John F. Cady (Franklin College), Professor Carl D. Hartzell (Carleton College).

(3) *Philosophy and Psychology*: A. Philosophy. Topic for discussion, "Philosophy in Relation to the Social Studies." Papers by Professor J. F. Crawford (Beloit College), Professor Paul Johnson (Hamline University), and Professor E. L. Schaub, Northwestern University. B. Psychology. Topic for

discussion, "The Role of the General Laboratory in the Teaching of Elementary Psychology." Papers by Professors Homer E. Weaver (Oberlin College), Professor David M. Trout (Hillsdale College), Professor A. J. Harris (Purdue University), Professor Lee C. Douglas (Grinnell College).

(4) *Political Science*: Topic for discussion, "The Introductory Course in Political Science." Papers by Sister Eucharista (College of St. Catherine), Professor W. F. Cottrell (Miami University), and Professor David King (University of Akron).

(5) *Sociology and Anthropology*: Topic for discussion, "For Purposes of College Instruction—What is Sociology?" Papers by Professor A. H. Woodworth (Hanover College), Professor Carl Strow (Knox College), Professor L. E. Garwood (Coe College), Professor W. B. Bodenhafer (Washington University), Professor E. B. Harper (Kalamazoo College), Professor Louis A. Boettiger (Lawrence College).

The members of the conference were the guests of Northwestern University at a dinner April 3rd at which Dr. Robert L. Kelly, executive secretary of the Association of American Colleges, spoke on "The Place of the Social Sciences in a Liberal Education."

The committee in charge of arrangements consisted of the following members of the faculty of Northwestern University: A. R. Ellingwood, chairman, I. J. Cox, Franklin Fearing, E. H. Hahen, E. L. Schaub, A. J. Todd.

At the meeting of the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church, U. S. A. at Pittsburgh, May 28–June 3, the Board of Christian Education will present a striking exposition of the work of Christian education. The charts pertaining to colleges have been prepared in the Association-Council office, and cover the following states: Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa, South Dakota and Nebraska. Twelve denominations are represented. Statistical data were drawn from the reports given in the *Handbook of Christian Education for 1931*.

COLLEGE STUDENTS AND INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS IN 1931

LUCIA AMES MEAD

NEXT August there is to assemble at Mount Holyoke College a body of fifty-five carefully selected college students from different European countries. Eighteen Mount Holyoke students have offered to give up part of their vacation to feed them and attend to their needs as they study American college life. From September 1-8 there will be student conferences with American students, followed by visits of groups to different American colleges at their autumn opening to study the personnel of our students, their methods of living and their culture. Some of the men will remain until Christmas for further study and conference.

This coming of eager, young Europeans curious to see what the real America is like may be an important factor in the effort which all educators find imperative today, namely, to bring about a better understanding between leaders in Europe and America who are largely going to shape the future of a world at present threatened by poverty, discord and inability to cope with the modern complex problems that are the aftermath of the World War. Sir Philip Gibbs is telling us that the worst side of each country is being portrayed in the press of the other country. Elmer Gantry, Mayor Thompson, and Americans who burn Negroes are being represented as typical. There is dangerous unrest and irritation. The condition has not been so serious since 1922.

This student body which will contain all types, including Hitlerites and Anti-Semites, will largely be aided to come by fifteen consular services. The International Student Service, whose headquarters are at 13, Rue Calvin, Geneva, has recently sent over its very able secretary, Dr. Walter Koschnitz, an Austrian, who has been speaking three or four times a day through the country and who is on his way to China to see what can be done for sorely distressed Chinese students. His American colleague, Mr. Trowbridge, of Phillips Andover, is an elo-

quent exponent of international student problems. Mr. Trowbridge has vividly described the dismay which he felt at the first European gathering in 1922, when a nationalistic spirit was rampant and Americans seemed to command little respect and influence. The feeling has changed since, yet the hordes of American tourists who care little for the real life and problems of the people of Europe frequently, unwittingly to themselves, create irritation. Europe dreads to be Americanized, as when at Oberammergau 90 per cent of the visitors were Americans and practically ousted the Germans. At the Oxford gathering, held recently, a better spirit prevailed and a real advance was made. There was an outburst of hilarity when it was learned that a certain Kansas college had a course on milk, at which an indignant graduate hastened to declare that milk was necessary for babies and was a subject for chemical analysis as much as anything. European students often look with surprise at the extent to which vocational training is crowding out Plato and Virgil and Dante and they are loath to have prosperous America ignore the culture which they yearn to maintain in this age of machinery and worship of wealth. It is to be hoped that the group who come will go back enabled to report the best side of American life in our colleges and will hear of something besides athletics, Harkness gifts, and "proms."

The war left practically the whole college student body of Europe undernourished and dangerously nationalistic. It was long before French and German students could tolerate each other's company. Young men huddled together in little, cold hall-bedrooms and lived on one or two meals a day. They buttoned high their coats when collars and shirts were lacking. Only Remarque can depict "The Road Back." Sometimes ill-fed students were too exhausted to study. Many who had never dreamed of doing manual labor in former days took shovels and worked when they could get work.

The International Student Service aims to help suffering students and to build student-centers where students at small price can obtain comfort and good fellowship. The great center now established in Berlin is performing fine service. In 1928, the International Student Service revealed the appalling need of the

Bulgarian universities and their students—"no food, no lodging, no books." Since then \$15,400 have been received in contributions large and small, the United States students sending over \$8,000. The Zurich students worked day and night to raise their share. A Student Self-Help Center is planned for Sofia, the site and architect's plans being provided. On account of the lack of university text-books Bulgarian students are obliged to have many of their lecture courses typed and duplicated, and they are struggling hard to get typewriters and accommodations.

As one reads in *More Facts*—the monthly sheet of the International Student Service, of the pinching poverty which is crippling the cultural life of the war-stricken countries and contrasts the lavish donations here for lordly halls and luxurious "frats," one wonders whether American students know how significant the contrast is in the effect on international relations. When it is possible here for a multi-millionaire to squander on one evening's ball given to satiated, rich young folks a vast sum that might have brought life, health and culture to thousands of future scientists, physicians and publicists; when our big navy men recklessly demand a six to ten year program of building that will take a thousand million dollars from the taxpayers, sane people wonder whether the world, having learned no lesson from past folly, is plunging on as blindly toward the abyss as she was in 1914.

This is a year of grace before the momentous Disarmament Conference when 5,000 war specialists and diplomats will assemble at Geneva to study how to cripple the war monster. Let the college students of the world unite in an imperative demand that the billions now spent on bombs and battleships and all that they represent be henceforth given to enlighten and uplift the myriads whom their fathers' follies have left crippled in mind, body and estate.

THE ARCHITECTURAL FORUM

THE June issue of *The Architectural Forum* is a special reference number devoted to the architecture of college and university buildings. The illustrations will show colleges in various sections of the United States, indicating the various styles of architecture and various types of buildings, including plans and significant details. The construction and cost data regarding the buildings will also be given as far as possible.

Among the informative articles will be: "The Planning of College Groups," by Frederick L. Ackerman, and "The Choice of Architectural Styles," by C. Howard Walker. An interesting sidelight on this subject is the article on "What the Undergraduate Thinks the College Building Should Be," written by William Harlan Hale, whose criticism of the Yale Buildings, published in the *Harkness Hoot*, has been widely read. "The Effect of Changes in Educational Method on Collegiate Architecture" will also be discussed. John Parkinson, of California, has written an article on "Administration and Study Buildings," including laboratories, etc., and Jens Fredrick Larson, architect for Dartmouth College, discusses fully "Library Problems." "The Planning for Student Housing," including dormitories, dining halls, kitchens, etc., is treated in analytical detail by Harold R. Sleeper. "The Recreational Buildings" are discussed by Irving K. Pond, architect, of Chicago, whose wide experience in this field is well known. "The Problems of Athletic Buildings," including gymnasiums, field houses, swimming pools, etc., is the subject of a detailed research study by Daniel B. Cathcart.

The fundamental idea underlying the preparation of this reference number is that of providing an authoritative treatise on the subject of the "recent developments in the physical aspects of colleges," so written and so thoroughly illustrated as to be a source of practical information, as well as an inspiration and a guide, to all those engaged in the development of collegiate architecture.

LITERATURE ON HIGHER EDUCATION

The following books have been added to the library of the Association of American Colleges, 111 Fifth Avenue, New York City, since the list published in the December issue of the *BULLETIN* was made up. Members of the Association and readers of the *BULLETIN* are invited to call and consult these books at any time. Information regarding them will be given upon application.

American Society, Charles F. Thwing, The Macmillan Company, New York (1931). 271 pp. \$2.25.

The Awakening College, Clarence C. Little, Norton, New York (1930). 202 pp. \$3.00.

Biological Foundations of Education, Otis W. Caldwell, Charles E. Skinner, J. Winfield Tietz, Ginn and Company, Boston (1931). 534 pp. \$2.72.

A Book About the English Bible, Josiah H. Penniman, Univ. of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia. 444 pp. \$2.00.

The Christian Student, Vol. 31, A. E. Kirk, Editor. The Board of Education of the Methodist Episcopal Church, Chicago. \$2.00.

A College Man's Religion, Edward McShane Waits, Stafford-Lowdon, Ft. Worth, Tex. 418 pp. \$2.00.

The Coming Revival, Allyn K. Foster, The Judson Press, Philadelphia. \$1.50.

A Comparative Study of Entrance to Teacher-Training Institutions, Mellicent McNeil, Columbia University Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, New York (1930). 104 pp.

Deans at Work, Sarah M. Sturtevant and Harriet Hayes, Harper & Bros., New York (1930). 295 pp. \$2.75.

The Department of Superintendence Ninth Yearbook—Five Unifying Factors in American Education, The Department of Superintendence, Washington, D. C. 543 pp.

Education Adequate for Modern Times—Discussions and Proposals of the National Student-Faculty Conference on Religion and Education, Association Press, New York (1931). 276 pp. \$2.00.

The Educational Work of Thomas Jefferson, Roy J. Honeywell, Harvard Studies in Education, No. 16, Harvard University Press, Cambridge. \$3.00.

The Effects of Practice on Individual Differences, George William Reagan (1930). 19 pp. (Abstract of a thesis submitted in the Graduate School of the University of Illinois, 1928.)

The Financial Support of State Universities, Richard R. Price, Harvard Studies in Education, Vol. VI, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass. \$3.50.

The Financial Support of the University of Michigan: Its Origin and Development, Richard R. Price, Ed.D., Harvard Bulletins in Education, No. VIII, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass. 58 pp. 50c.

Greatness Passing By, Hulda Niebuhr, Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York (1931). 160 pp. \$1.50.

The History of the American Association of University Women, Marion Talbot and Lois K. M. Rosenberry, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston (1931). 479 pp. \$4.00.

An Introduction to Biblical Archaeology, George S. Duncan, Fleming H. Revell Co., New York (1928). 174 pp. \$1.75.

- Laboratory Instruction in the Field of Inorganic Chemistry.** Victor H. Noll, The University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis (1930). 164 pp. \$2.00.
- Larry,** Association Press, New York (1931). \$1.25.
- The Liberal College in Changing Society,** J. B. Johnston, The Century Company, New York (1930). 326 pp. \$2.50.
- Life in College,** Christian Gauss, Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York (1930). 272 pp. \$2.50.
- Marriage—Ideals and Realization,** Emanuel Swedenborg, The New Church Press, New York (1929), 155 pp. \$1.00.
- The Marking System of the College Entrance Examination Board,** L. Thomas Hopkins, Ed.D., Harvard Monographs in Education, No. 2, 15 pp. Harvard University Press, Cambridge. 40c.
- The Meaning of the Cross,** Henry Sloane Coffin, Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York (1931). \$1.50.
- The Mind of Christ in Paul,** Frank Chamberlain Porter, Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York (1930). 323 pp. \$2.50.
- The Oberlehrer: A Study of the Social and Professional Evolution of the German Schoolmaster,** Wm. S. Learned, Harvard Studies in Education, Vol. I, Harvard University Press, Cambridge. \$1.50.
- Our New Ways of Thinking,** George Boas, Harper & Bros., New York. (1930). 194 pp. \$2.50.
- The Pleroma—An Essay on the Origin of Christianity,** Paul Carus, The Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago (1909). 163 pp.
- Protestant Cooperation in American Cities,** H. Paul Douglass, Institute of Social and Religious Research, New York (1930). 514 pp. \$3.50.
- Public School Organization and Administration,** Fred Engelhardt, Ginn & Co., Boston (1931). 595 pp. \$3.60.
- The Relation Between Learning Exercises and Immediate Objectives,** Charles William Knudsen (1930). (Abstract of a thesis submitted in the Graduate School of the University of Illinois, 1927.)
- Religious Education on Public School Time,** Floyd S. Gove, Ed.D., Harvard Bulletins in Education, No. XI, Harvard University Press, Cambridge. 161 pp. \$1.00.
- Religion in a Changing World,** Abba Hillel Silver, Richard R. Smith, Inc., New York (1930). 204 pp. \$2.00.
- A School System as an Educational Laboratory,** Wm. S. Learned, Harvard Bulletins in Education, No. I, Harvard University Press, Cambridge. 50 pp. 25c.
- Students' Marks in College Courses,** John E. Bohan, The University of Minnesota Press (1931). 133 pp. \$1.50.
- Studies are Not Everything,** Max McConn, Viking Press, New York. \$2.00.
- Study of the Relations of Secondary and Higher Education in Pennsylvania,** The Carnegie Corporation, New York.
- The Teacher and Secondary School Administration,** W. W. Carpenter and John Ruf, Ginn and Company, Boston (1931). 460 pp. \$2.40.

Among books not in the library should be mentioned: **Charles W. Eliot,** Henry James, Houghton Mifflin Co., New York (1930), two volumes. \$10.00.